

KIPS
ENTRY TESTS
SERIES

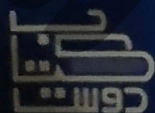
PREP BOOK

CHEMISTRY

National MDCAT

AS PER PMC SYLLABUS

- ▶ Topic-wise Complete Syllabus
- ▶ Comprehensive Course Revision
- ▶ Detailed Explanation of Topics
- ▶ Tables, Flow Sheets & Diagrams
- ▶ Critical Concepts; Critical Thinking



A Knowledge Publication

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TOPIC-1



INTRODUCTION TO FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS OF CHEMISTRY

COURSE CONTENT

- Atomic Mass
- Empirical
- Molecular formulae
- Concept of mole
- Construction of mole ratios as conversion factors in stoichiometry calculations.
- Avogadro's number
- Important assumptions of stoichiometric calculations
- Stoichiometry
- Limiting reactant
- Percentage yield

INTRODUCTION

Atom

The smallest particle of an element which can take part in the chemical reaction is called an atom.

May exist independently

Monoatomic gases

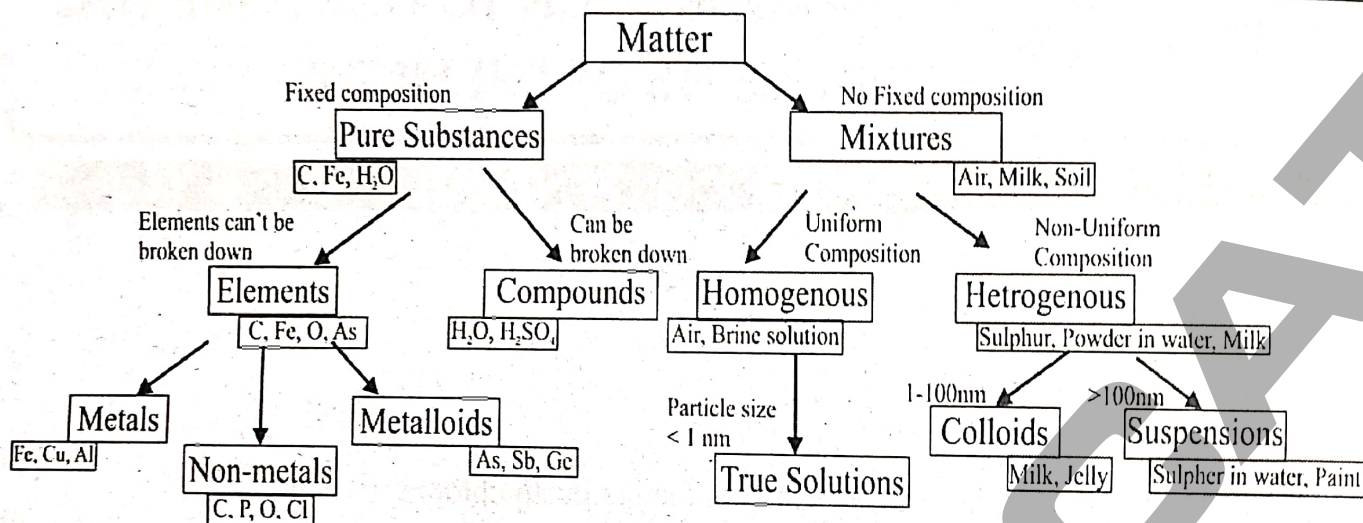
Helium (He), Neon (Ne) and Argon (Ar)

May not exist independently

Hydrogen (H), Oxygen (O) and Nitrogen (N)

Atom is made up of more than 100 sub-atomic particles e.g.

Electron	} →	fundamental sub-atomic
Proton		
Neutron		
Hyprion		
Neutrino		



ION

The charged species which are formed by the loss or gain of one or more electrons are called ions.

Types of ions

Cations		Anions	
1	Cation is formed by the loss of one or more electrons as a result of oxidations. $A \xrightarrow{\text{oxidation}} A^+ + e^-$	1	Anions is formed by the gain of one or more electrons as a result of reduction. $B + e^- \xrightarrow{\text{reduction}} B^-$
2	Formation of cation is always an endothermic process.	2	Formation of uni-negative ion is exothermic but formation of all other negative ions is endothermic.
3	A cation may carry +1, +2, +3 etc.	3	An anion may carry -1, -2, -3 etc.
4	Size of cation is smaller than its parent atom.	4	Size of anion is greater than its parent atom.

Molecular Ion

The charged molecular species formed by the loss or gain of electron are called molecular ions.

Types of molecular ion

- Cationic molecular ion CH_4^+ , CO^+ , N_2^+
- Anionic molecular ion $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{C}^-$, O_2^{2-} , O_2^-

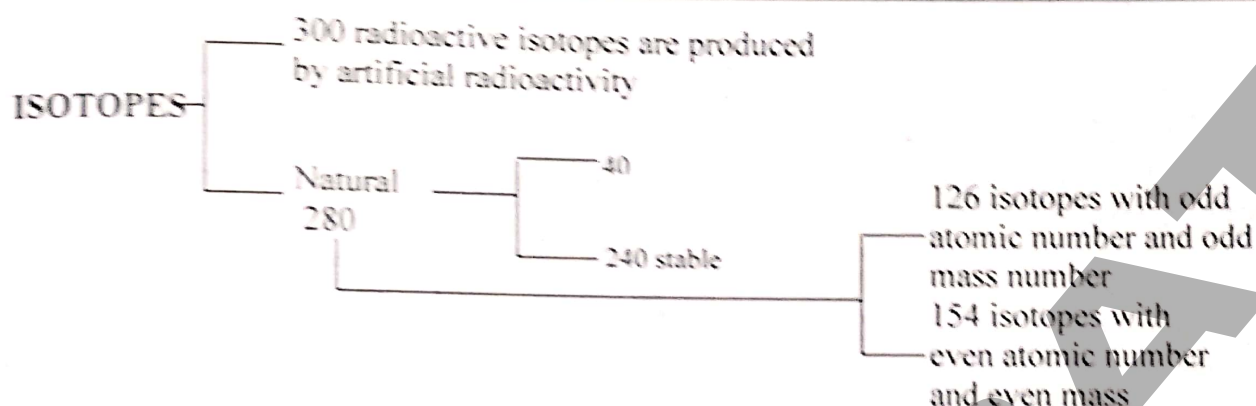
Number of cationic molecular ions are greater than the number of anionic molecular ions.

ISOTOPES

Atoms of the same element having different mass number are called isotopes. The concept of isotopy was introduced by Soddy.

Occurrence

Elements occur in the nature in the form of isotopes. Occurrence of isotopes has been shown here.



- $^{16}_8\text{O}$, $^{24}_{12}\text{Mg}$, $^{28}_{14}\text{Si}$, $^{40}_{20}\text{Ca}$, $^{56}_{26}\text{Fe}$ form nearly 50% of the earth crust.

Similarities and dissimilarities in isotopes of elements

Similarities	Dissimilarities
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Atomic number Number of Protons Number of electrons Electronic configuration Position in periodic table Chemical properties 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mass number Number of Neutrons Physical properties Half life Rate of reaction

Classification of elements on the basis of isotopes

Basis	Examples
• Mono-isotopic (1) elements	F, I, As, Au, Na
• Di-isotopic (2) elements	Bi, Cl, Br
• Tri-isotopic (3) elements	Ne, C, H, O, N
• Tetra-isotopic (4) element	S
• Penta-isotopic (5) element	Ni
• Hexa-isotopic (6) elements	Ca, Pd
• Nano-isotopic (9) element	Cd
• Undeca-isotopic (11) element	Sn
• Hexdeca-isotopic (16) element	Ag

RELATIVE MASSES

- Relative mass is the mass of a given substance scaled with carbon-12.
- C-12 is used as standard in this scale because
 - It is highly stable isotope.
 - Its mass is exactly in whole numbers i.e. 12.000
 - It can be handled easily.

RELATIVE ATOMIC MASS

The mass of an atom of an element as compared to the mass of an atom of carbon-12

Atomic mass unit

The unit used to express the relative atomic mass is called atomic mass unit (amu) and it

is $\frac{1}{12}$ of the mass of one atom of C-12

$$1 \text{ amu} = 1.661 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$$

$$= 1.661 \times 10^{-24} \text{ g}$$

(i) Chlorine

Isotopes	$^{35}_{17}\text{Cl}$	$^{37}_{17}\text{Cl}$
Relative abundance	75%	25%
Relative isotopic mass	$^{35}_{17}\text{Cl} = 35 \text{ amu}$	

RELATIVE MOLECULAR MASS

The mass of a molecule as compared to the mass of an atom of carbon-12

Relative molecular mass of water is 18 amu

Relative molecular mass of carbon dioxide is 44 amu

RELATIVE FORMULA MASS

The mass of a formula unit as compared to the mass of an atom of carbon-12

Relative formula mass of NaCl is 58.5 amu

Relative formula mass of Na_2SO_4 is 142 amu

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

Isobar: Two species having same atomic mass but different atomic number. e. g. $\text{C}_6^{14}\text{N}_7^{14}$

Isotone: Two species having same number of neutrons

e.g. C_6^{14} , O_8^{16} both have 8 neutrons.

CRITICAL THINKING?**Q.1 Iso electronic species possess**

A. Same number of proton

C. Same number of neutron

B. Same number of electron

D. Both a and c

Q.2 Which of the following is isotonic pair

A. O_8^{18} , F_9^{19}

C. O_8^{16} , N_7^{14}

B. O_8^{16} , F_9^{19}

D. O_8^{18} , C_6^{14}

MOLE AND AVOGADRO'S NUMBER**MOLE**

The relative atomic mass of an element, relative molecular mass of covalent compound or relative formula mass of ionic compound or ionic specie expressed in grams is called **mole**. It is denoted by 'n' and abbreviated as 'mol'.

Examples:

1 mole of Na = 23.0g of sodium (One-gram atom of Na)

1 mole of H_2O = 18.0g of water (One-gram molecule of H_2O)

1 mole of NaCl = 58.5g of sodium chloride (One-gram formula of NaCl)

1 mole of SO_4^{2-} = 96g of sulphate ion (One-gram formula unit mass of SO_4^{2-})

Determination of Mole

There are three main methods to determine number of moles of a substance.

(i) When mass of substance is given in grams.

$$\text{Number of moles of substance} = \frac{\text{Mass in grams of given substance}}{\text{Relative atomic mass/molecular mass/formula mass}}$$

(ii) For a certain number of particles (atoms, ions or molecules)

$$\text{Number of moles of a substance} = \frac{\text{Number of particles of the given substance}}{6.022 \times 10^{23} \text{ (Avogadro's number of particles)}}$$

(iii) For volume of a given gas in dm^3 at STP.

$$\text{Number of moles of gas} = \frac{\text{Volume of the gas in } \text{dm}^3 \text{ at STP}}{22.414 \text{ dm}^3}$$

Topic-1

Introduction to Fundamental Concepts of Chemistry

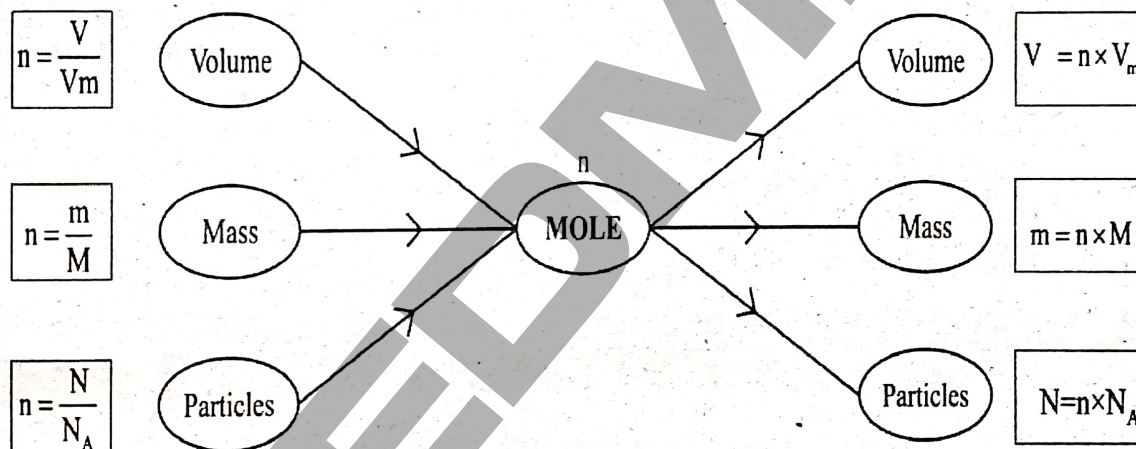
One mole	Particles	6.022×10^{23} Atoms	6.022×10^{23} Molecules	6.022×10^{23} Formula Units	6.022×10^{23} Ions
	Mass	Gram atomic mass of element	Gram molecular mass of the molecular substance	Gram formula mass of the ionic compound formula unit	Gram ionic mass of the ionic specie
	Volume	At STP (ideal gas) = 22.4 dm^3 and at RTP = 24.0 dm^3			

AVOGADRO'S NUMBER or CONSTANT (N_A)

It is the number of particles (atoms, ions or molecules) present in one mole of a substance. It is denoted by N_A . Its value is 6.022×10^{23} .

Examples

23g Na	=	1 mole	=	6.022×10^{23} atoms
18.0g H_2O	=	1 mole	=	6.022×10^{23} molecules
58.5g NaCl	=	1 mole	=	6.022×10^{23} formula units
96g SO_4^{2-}	=	1 mole	=	6.022×10^{23} ions



EMPIRICAL AND MOLECULAR FORMULAE

Empirical Formula:

A formula which represents the simplest whole number ratio of atoms of elements in a compound is called empirical formula.

Examples: NaCl, CH_2O , CH are empirical formula of sodium chloride, glucose and benzene respectively.

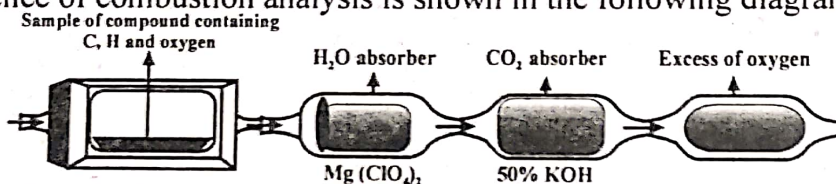
Steps to determine empirical formula:

Empirical formula of a compound can be calculated by the following the steps:

- Determination of the percentage composition of each element.
- Finding the number of gram atoms (mole) of each element. For this purpose divide the %age of an element by its relative atomic mass.
- Determination of the atomic ratio of each element by dividing gram atoms or mole by the smallest number of moles.
- If the atomic ratio is in simple whole number, it gives the empirical formula, otherwise multiply with a suitable digit to get the whole number atomic ratio.

COMBUSTION ANALYSIS

The sequence of combustion analysis is shown in the following diagram.



By combustion analysis only those organic compounds can be analyzed which simply contain carbon, hydrogen and oxygen.

From the masses, percentages are calculated by using the following formulae

$$(i) \% \text{ age of Carbon} = \frac{\text{Mass of CO}_2 \text{ obtained in experiment}}{\text{Mass of organic compound}} \times \frac{12}{44} \times 100$$

$$(ii) \% \text{ age of Hydrogen} = \frac{\text{Mass of H}_2\text{O obtained in experiment}}{\text{Mass of organic compound}} \times \frac{2.016}{18.0} \times 100$$

$$(iii) \% \text{ age of oxygen} = 100 - (\% \text{ of carbon} + \% \text{ of hydrogen})$$

Example

A sample of liquid consisting of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen was subjected to combustion analysis. 0.5439 g of the compound gave 1.039 g of CO₂, 0.6369 g of H₂O. Determine the empirical formula of the compound.

Element	%	No. of gram atoms	Atomic ratio	Empirical formula
C	$\frac{1.039\text{g}}{0.5439\text{g}} \times \frac{12.00}{44.00} \times 100 = 52.108$	$\frac{52.108}{12} = 4.34$	$\frac{4.34}{2.17} = 2$	C ₂ H ₆ O
H	$\frac{0.6369\text{g}}{0.5439\text{g}} \times \frac{2.016}{18} \times 100 = 13.115$	$\frac{13.115}{1.008} = 13.01$	$\frac{13.01}{2.17} = 6$	
O	$100 - (52.108 + 13.115) = 34.77$	$\frac{34.77}{16.00} = 2.17$	$\frac{2.17}{2.17} = 1$	

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN EMPIRICAL AND MOLECULAR FORMULA

	Empirical formula	Molecular formula
1	A formula which represents the simplest whole number ratio of atoms of elements in a compound is called empirical formula.	A formula which represents actual number of atoms of each element in a molecular compound is called molecular formula.
2	It is obtained from %age composition of elements i.e. chemical analysis	It is obtained by multiplying 'n' with empirical formula i.e. from empirical formula
3	This term is used for both molecular and ionic compounds	This term is used only for molecular compounds
4	Examples: NaCl, CH ₂ O, CH are empirical formula of sodium chloride, glucose and benzene respectively.	Examples: C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₆ and C ₆ H ₆ are molecular formulae of glucose and benzene respectively.

Relationship between empirical and molecular formula

$$\text{Molecular formula} = n \times \text{Empirical formula}$$

$$\text{M.F.} = n(\text{E.F.})$$

NOTE: The term empirical formula is used for ionic compounds and giant covalent structures (sand SiO₂, graphite and diamond C). It is also used for covalent compounds as CH₂O for glucose and acetic acid.

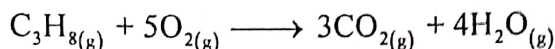
CONSTRUCTION OF MOLE RATIOS AS CONVERSION FACTORS IN STOICHIOMETRIC CALCULATIONS

MOLE RATIOS:

Mole ratios mean the ratios of number of moles of reactants taking part and the number of moles of product formed.

Example:

Combustion of propane



The mole ratios between the reactants and products can be shown as, one mole of propane reacts with five moles of oxygen to produce three moles of carbon dioxide and four moles of water.

CONVERSION FACTOR:

A ratio of co-efficients found in a balanced chemical equation, which can be used to interconvert the amount of any two participants (reactants or product) is called conversion factor.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Conversion Factor} &= \frac{\text{Mole ratio of reactants in balanced chemical equation}}{\text{moles of the reactant to be calculated}} \\ &= \frac{\text{moles of the other reactant}}{\text{moles of the reactant to be calculated}} \end{aligned}$$

STOICHIOMETRIC CALCULATIONS

Stoichiometry is a branch of chemistry, which tells us the quantitative relationship between reactants and products in a balanced chemical equation.

CHEMICAL EQUATION

Chemical equation is the statement that describes a chemical reaction in terms of symbols and chemical formulae.

Limitation of balanced chemical equations

They do not tell about the

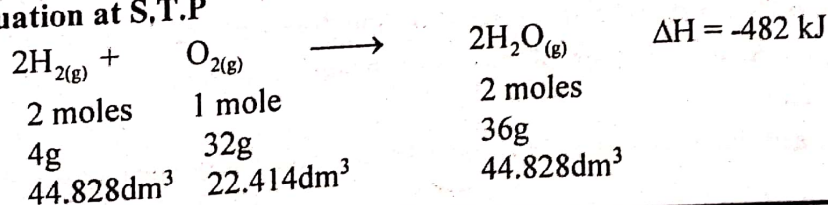
- (i) Conditions (temperature and pressure)
- (ii) Rate of reaction
- (iii) Physical state of reactants and products
- (iv) Mechanism of reaction
- (v) Feasibility of reaction

Conditions for stoichiometric calculations

Stoichiometric calculations are based on the following conditions: -

- (i) All the reactants must be completely converted into the products.
- (ii) The side reaction must not occur.
- (iii) The law of conservation of mass and the law of definite proportions must be obeyed while doing the calculations.

The following types of relationship can be studied with the help of a balanced chemical equation at S.T.P



(i) Mass-mass relationship

If we are given the mass of one substance, we can calculate the mass of the other substance.

(ii) Mass-mole relationship or mole-mass relationship

If we are given the mass of one substance, we can calculate the moles of other substance and vice versa.

(iii) Mass-volume relationship

If we are given the mass of one substance, we can calculate the volume of the other substances and vice versa.

(iv) Mole-mole relationship

If we are given the mole of one substance, we can calculate the mole of the other substances and vice versa.

MOLAR VOLUME:

One mole of any gas at S.T.P (standard temperature and pressure) occupies a volume of 22.414 dm^3 . This volume is called molar volume.

Mass of a gas can be converted into its volume at S.T.P (0°C , 1 atm) and vice versa. Its mean molar volume of gases is also related with their density at S.T.P

i.e 22.414 dm^3 of any gas at S.T.P = 1 mole = 6.02×10^{23} molecules.

Example:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} 22.414 \text{ dm}^3 \text{ of H}_2 \text{ gas at S.T.P} & = 2 \text{ g} = 1 \text{ mole} & = 6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ molecules} \\ 22.414 \text{ dm}^3 \text{ of NH}_3 \text{ gas at S.T.P} & = 17 \text{ g} = 1 \text{ mole} & = 6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ molecules} \end{array}$$

Formula:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{Volume of a gas} & = & \text{moles} \times 22.414 \text{ dm}^3 \\ \text{Volume of oxygen} & = & \frac{\text{mass in grams}}{\text{molecular mass}} \times 22.4 \text{ dm}^3 \end{array}$$

LIMITING REACTANT

Limiting reactant is a reactant that controls the amount of the products formed in a chemical reaction due to being less than the required amount. It can also be defined as follows:

- (i) It is a reactant that produces least number of moles of product.
- (ii) It is consumed earlier in the reaction.

Identification of limiting reactant

To identify a limiting reactant, the following three steps are performed.

- (i) Calculate the number of moles from the given amount of reactants.
- (ii) Calculate the number of moles of product formed from the given moles of each reactant.
- (iii) Identify the reactant as limiting reactant which produces least moles of the product.

YIELD:

The amount of the product obtained as a result of the chemical reaction is called yield.

Types of yield**(a) Theoretical yield**

The amount of the product calculated from the balanced chemical equation is called the theoretical yield.

(b) Actual yield / Experimental yield

The amount of the product obtained in a chemical reaction experimentally is called actual yield.

(c) Percentage yield

$$\% \text{ Yield} = \frac{\text{Actual yield}}{\text{Theoretical yield}} \times 100$$

NOTE: Actual yield is always less than theoretical yield.

Reasons

- (i) A practically inexperienced worker has many shortcomings and cannot get the expected yield.
- (ii) The processes like filtration, crystallization etc if not properly carried out, decrease the actual yield.
- (iii) Some of the reactants might take part in a competing side reaction and reduce the amount of the desired product.

TOPIC-2

ATOMIC STRUCTURE

COURSE CONTENTS

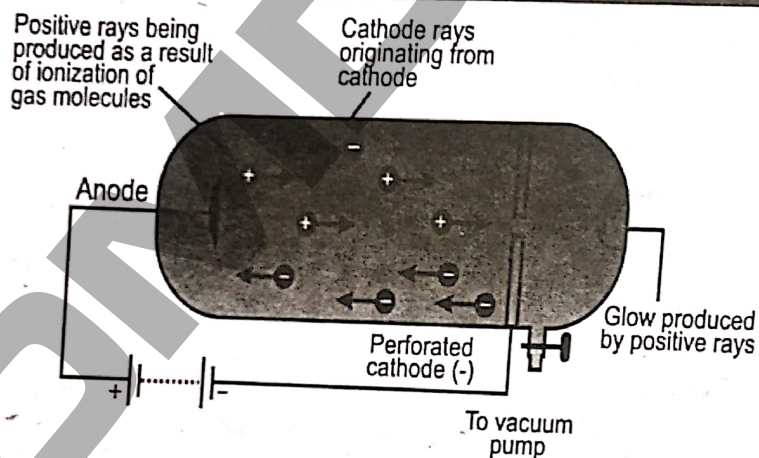
- Concept of orbitals
- Electronic configuration
- Discovery and properties of proton (positive rays)
- Quantum numbers
- Shapes of orbitals

DISCOVERY OF POSITIVE RAYS

In 1886, German physicist, Eugene Goldstein discovered protons or positive rays or canal rays.

Apparatus:

A discharge tube provided with a cathode having extremely fine holes in it.



Procedure:

When a large potential difference is applied between electrodes, it is observed that while cathode rays are traveling away from cathode, there are other rays produced at the same time moving towards cathode. These are called positive rays. They are also called canal rays since they pass through the canals or holes in cathode.

Reason for production:

When high speed cathode rays strike the residual gas molecules, they knock out electrons from them and positive ions are produced.



Observation:

These rays after passing through the perforated cathode produce a reddish glow on the opposite wall.

PROPERTIES OF POSITIVE RAYS

Positive Rays

Production

They are produced when electric current is passed through gas at low pressure

Charge

Have positive charge as deflected towards negative pole of electric field.

Move in straight line.

e/m ratio

Smaller than electron

Depends upon the gas filled in tube.

Highest value was obtained when H_2 gas was filled.

Penetration power is very low.

They can ionize gases.

They produce shadow of an opaque object.

They were named canal rays because they travel through perforated cathode electrodes

KEEP IN MIND

Particle	Symbol	Charges
Alpha	${}^4_2\text{He}$	Positive
Beta	${}^0_{-1}\text{e}$	Negative
Neutron	${}^1_0\text{n}$	No charge
Proton	${}^1_1\text{H}$	Positive
Neutrino	${}^0_0\text{n}$	No charge

Sr. No.	Quantity	Electron	Proton	Neutron
1.	Charge	$-1.6022 \times 10^{-19}\text{C}$	$+1.6022 \times 10^{-19}\text{C}$	Neutral
2.	Mass	$9.1095 \times 10^{-31}\text{kg}$	$1.6726 \times 10^{-27}\text{kg}$	$1.6750 \times 10^{-27}\text{kg}$
	a.m.u.	5.4858×10^{-4}	1.0073	1.0087
3.	Relative mass	1	1836 times	1840 times
4.	Relative charge	-1	+1	Neutral

Mass of Electron	
Method I	Method II
$e/m = 1.7588 \times 10^{11} \text{ C/kg}$	$m/e = 5.686 \times 10^{-12} \text{ kg/C}$
Mass of electron = $\frac{1.6022 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}}{1.7588 \times 10^{11} \text{ C/kg}}$	Mass of $e^- = 5.686 \times 10^{-12} \text{ kg/C} \times 1.6022 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$
Mass of electron = $9.1095 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$	Mass of electron = $9.1095 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$

PLANCK'S QUANTUM THEORY

In 1900 Max Planck put forward his theory to explain the emission and absorption of radiations. This theory gives the relationship of energy, frequency, wavelength and wave number of photon of light.

- Energy is emitted or absorbed only in terms of wave packets in a discontinuous manner. These wave packets are called quanta or photon.

- Energy of photon or quanta $E \propto \nu$.

$$E = h\nu = hc/\lambda = hc\bar{\nu}$$

Where,

$$h = \text{Planck's constant} = 6.625 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js.}$$

ν = frequency

$$c = \text{velocity of light} = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

λ = wavelength in Å, nm, pm

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

Frequency: (ν)

Number of waves passing through a point in one second.

Wave length: (λ)

The distance between two adjacent crests or troughs.

Wave number: ($\bar{\nu}$)

The number of waves per unit length.

CRITICAL THINKING?

Q.1 Incorrect relationship is

A. $E \propto \nu$

C. $E \propto 1/\bar{\nu}$

B. $E \propto 1/\lambda$

D. All are correct

$\bar{\nu}$ = wave number

QUANTUM NUMBERS

The sets of numerical values, which give the acceptable solution to Schrodinger wave equation, are called quantum numbers.

The quantum numbers are;

- 1- Principal quantum number (n)
- 2- Azimuthal quantum number (ℓ)
- 3- Magnetic quantum number (m)
- 4- Spin quantum number (s)

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

Idea of quantum numbers was given by Schrodinger in the answer of defects of Bohr's model.

Principal Quantum Number	Azimuthal Quantum Number	Magnetic Quantum Number	Spin Quantum Number	Number of Electrons in Shell
1 (K)	0 (s)	0	$+1/2, -1/2$	2 } 2
2 (L)	0 (s)	0	$+1/2, -1/2$	2 } 8
	1 (p)	-1, 0, +1	$+1/2, -1/2$	6
3 (M)	0 (s)	0	$+1/2, -1/2$	2 } 18
	1 (p)	-1, 0, +1	$+1/2, -1/2$	6
	2 (d)	-2, -1, 0, +1, +2	$+1/2, -1/2$	10
4 (N)	0 (s)	0	$+1/2, -1/2$	2 } 32
	1 (p)	-1, 0, +1	$+1/2, -1/2$	6
	2 (d)	-2, -1, 0, +1, +2	$+1/2, -1/2$	10
	3 (f)	-3, -2, -1, 0, +1, +2, +3	$+1/2, -1/2$	14

Orbital

The area around the nucleus, where the probability of finding an electron is maximum is called an orbital.

Sub-shell	Orbitals	shape
s	1 s-atomic orbital	spherical
p	3 p-atomic orbitals p_x, p_y, p_z	dumb-bell
d	5 d-atomic orbitals $d_{xy}, d_{yz}, d_{xz}, d_{x^2-y^2}, d_{z^2}$	sausage
f	7 f-atomic orbitals	complex

Arrangement of sub-shells

The sub-shells are arranged in the increasing order of $(n+l)$ value and if any two sub-shells have same $(n+l)$ value, then that sub-shell is placed first whose n value is smaller.

CRITICAL THINKING?

- Q.2 How many quantum numbers were derived from Schrodinger wave equation?
- A. Two
B. Three
C. Four
D. Six

SHAPES OF ORBITALS

Shapes of s-orbitals:

s-orbital is spherical in shape and is represented by a circle (cut of sphere). Higher the value of 'n' for s-subshell, greater will be its size.

Example: 2s is larger in size than 1s.

Nodal Surface or Nodal Plane

The probability of finding of electron is zero between two orbitals. This plane is called Nodal plane or Nodal surface.

Shapes of p-orbitals

Each p-orbital has two lobes in dumb-bell shape.

These lobes are oriented along

$p_x \longrightarrow x\text{-axis}$

$p_y \longrightarrow y\text{-axis}$

$p_z \longrightarrow z\text{-axis}$

The size of p-orbital increases with increase in its 'n' value.

Example:

$3p_x$ orbital is larger in size than $2p_x$ but both have same shape (i.e. dumb-bell).

Shapes of d-orbitals

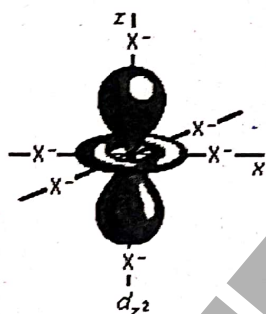
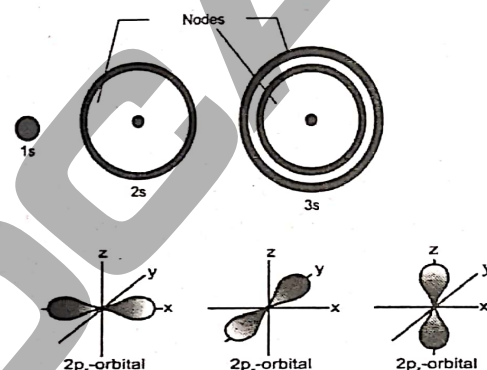
Each d-orbital has four lobes or two dumb-bell in sausage shape.

These lobes are either oriented along X-axis, Y-axis and Z-axis.

The size of d-orbital increases with increase in its 'n' value.

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

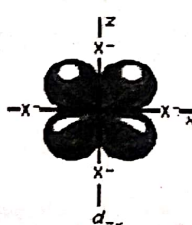
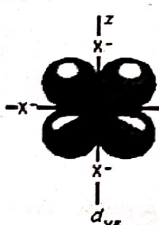
The volume of space in which there is a 95% chance of finding the electron is called orbital.



\longrightarrow On axes (Dumb-bell with collar)



\longrightarrow On axes (Double Dumb-bell / Clover-leave shape)



\longrightarrow Between axis (Double Dumb-bell)

CRITICAL THINKING?

Q.3 Shape of which orbital is different from its other degenerate orbitals.

A. s

B. p_x

C. p_z

D. d_{z^2}

ELECTRONIC CONFIGURATION OF ATOMS AND IONS (H \rightarrow Kr)

It is distribution of electrons in shells, sub-shells and orbitals of an atom according to definite rules.

The following rules are adopted in order to distribute the electrons in the orbitals of sub-shells of shells in an atom.

Aufbau principle

The electrons should be filled in energy sub shells in order of increasing energy values.

The electrons are first placed in

1s, 2s, 2p, 3s, 3p, 4s, 3d, 4p, 5s, 4d, 5p, 6s, 4f, 5d, 6p, 7s and so on.

($n + \ell$) rule: used to arrange the sub-shells in increasing energy order.

This gives us the arrangement of electrons in subshells.

Subshells are arranged in the increasing order of $n + \ell$ values and if any two subshells have the same $n + \ell$ values then the subshell is filled with electrons first whose 'n' value is smaller

It has two parts:

(a) The electrons are filled in subshells in increasing order of their ($n + \ell$) values.

(b) If two subshells have same ($n + \ell$) values, then the subshell with low 'n' value will be filled first.

This rule gives us the arrangement of subshells in increasing order of their energy.

Ascending order of energy of sub-shells on the basis of ($n + \ell$) rule

1s < 2s < 2p < 3s < 3p < 4s < 3d < 4p < 5s < 4d < 5p < 6s < 4f < 5d < 6p < 7s

Pauli's exclusion principle

→ Filling of electrons in orbitals

Two electrons in the same orbital must have opposite spins.
OR

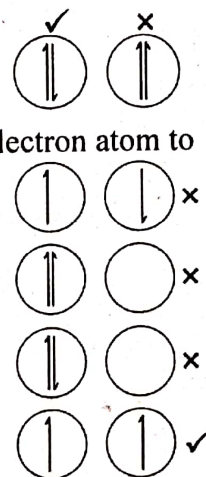
It is impossible for two electrons residing in the same orbital of a poly electron atom to have the same values of four quantum numbers.

Hund's rule

→ Filling of electrons in degenerate orbitals

If degenerate orbitals are available and more than one electron are to be placed in them, they should be placed in separate orbitals with the same spin rather than putting them in the same orbital with opposite spins.

Half-filled and completely filled sub-shells, are more stable e.g. 3d sub-shell of Cr and Cu.



Element	Atomic Number	Electron configuration Notation
Hydrogen	1	$1s^1$
Helium	2	$1s^2$
Lithium	3	$1s^2 2s^1$
Beryllium	4	$1s^2 2s^2$
Boron	5	$1s^2 2s^2 2p_x^1 2p_y^0 2p_z^0$
Carbon	6	$1s^2 2s^2 2p_x^1 2p_y^1 2p_z^0$
Nitrogen	7	$1s^2 2s^2 2p_x^1 2p_y^1 2p_z^1$
Oxygen	8	$1s^2 2s^2 2p_x^2 2p_y^1 2p_z^1$
Fluorine	9	$1s^2 2s^2 2p_x^2 2p_y^2 2p_z^1$
Neon	10	$1s^2 2s^2 2p_x^2 2p_y^2 2p_z^2$
Sodium	11	$[\text{Ne}] 3s^1$
Magnesium	12	$[\text{Ne}] 3s^2$
Aluminium	13	$[\text{Ne}] 3s^2 3p_x^1 3p_y^0 3p_z^0$
Silicon	14	$[\text{Ne}] 3s^2 3p_x^1 3p_y^1 3p_z^0$
Phosphorus	15	$[\text{Ne}] 3s^2 3p_x^1 3p_y^1 3p_z^1$
Sulphur	16	$[\text{Ne}] 3s^2 3p_x^2 3p_y^1 3p_z^1$
Chlorine	17	$[\text{Ne}] 3s^2 3p_x^2 3p_y^2 3p_z^1$
Argon	18	$[\text{Ne}] 3s^2 3p_x^2 3p_y^2 3p_z^2$
Potassium	19	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^1$
Calcium	20	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^2$
Scandium	21	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^2 3d_{xy}^1 3d_{yz}^0 3d_{xz}^0 3d_{x^2-y^2}^0 3d_{z^2}^0$
Titanium	22	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^2 3d_{xy}^1 3d_{yz}^1 3d_{xz}^0 3d_{x^2-y^2}^0 3d_{z^2}^0$
Vanadium	23	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^2 3d_{xy}^1 3d_{yz}^1 3d_{xz}^1 3d_{x^2-y^2}^0 3d_{z^2}^0$
Chromium	24	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^1 3d_{xy}^1 3d_{yz}^1 3d_{xz}^1 3d_{x^2-y^2}^1 3d_{z^2}^1$
Manganese	25	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^2 3d_{xy}^1 3d_{yz}^1 3d_{xz}^1 3d_{x^2-y^2}^1 3d_{z^2}^1$
Iron	26	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^2 3d_{xy}^2 3d_{yz}^1 3d_{xz}^1 3d_{x^2-y^2}^1 3d_{z^2}^1$
Cobalt	27	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^2 3d_{xy}^2 3d_{yz}^2 3d_{xz}^1 3d_{x^2-y^2}^1 3d_{z^2}^1$
Nickel	28	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^2 3d_{xy}^2 3d_{yz}^2 3d_{xz}^2 3d_{x^2-y^2}^1 3d_{z^2}^1$
Copper	29	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^1 3d_{xy}^2 3d_{yz}^2 3d_{xz}^2 3d_{x^2-y^2}^2 3d_{z^2}^2$
Zinc	30	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^2 3d_{xy}^2 3d_{yz}^2 3d_{xz}^2 3d_{x^2-y^2}^2 3d_{z^2}^2$
Gallium	31	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p_x^1 4p_y^0 4p_z^0$
Germanium	32	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p_x^1 4p_y^1 4p_z^0$
Arsenic	33	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p_x^1 4p_y^1 4p_z^1$
Selenium	34	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p_x^2 4p_y^1 4p_z^1$
Bromine	35	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p_x^2 4p_y^2 4p_z^1$
Krypton	36	$[\text{Ar}] 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p_x^2 4p_y^2 4p_z^2$



COURSE CONTENTS

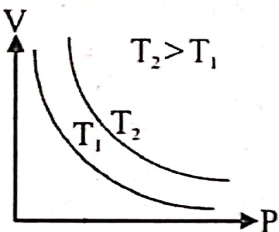
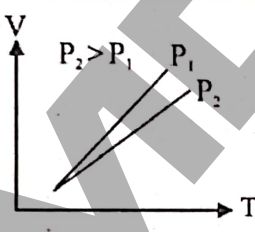
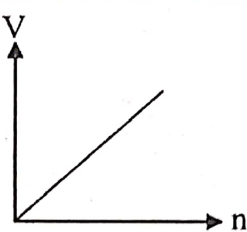
- Properties of gases
- Gas laws
- Boyle's law
- Charles's law
- General gas equation
- Kinetic molecular theory of gases
- Ideal gases equation
- Distinguish between Real and ideal gases (Van der Waals equation)

INTRODUCTION

- There are four states of matter namely, gas, liquid, solid and plasma.
- The simplest state is gas and complex one is plasma.
- Gas, liquid and solid states are considered to be phase transition states because they are interconvertible into each other at constant temperature.
- Whereas, plasma state is not a phase transition state because it is formed from gaseous state with continuously increasing temperature.

PROPERTIES OF GASES

1.	General	It has definite mass but no definite shape and volume
2.	Forces	Almost negligible
3.	Density	Low
4.	Motion	Molecules have large rotatory, vibratory and translatory motion
5.	Packing	No proper packing
6.	Energy	Least
7.	Thermal expansion	High
8.	Compression	High
9.	Intermixing	Spontaneous
10.	Pressure	Exert pressure on the walls of container

GAS LAWS			
Particulars	Boyle's law	Charles's law	Avogadro's law
Statement	The volume of a given mass of an ideal gas is inversely proportional to the applied pressure at constant temperature.	The volume of the given mass of an ideal gas is directly proportional to the absolute temperature at constant pressure	The volume of a given ideal gas is directly proportional to the number of moles at STP.
		The volume of given mass of a gas increases or decreases by $1/273$ of its original volume at 0°C for every 1°C rise or fall in temperature at constant pressure	Equal volumes of all the ideal gases contain equal number of molecules at same temperature and pressure.
Mathematical representation	$PV=K$ or $P_1V_1=P_2V_2$	$V/T=K$ or $V_1/T_1=V_2/T_2$	$V/n=K$ or $V_1/n_1=V_2/n_2$
Graphical verification			
Experimental observation	By putting a weight on moveable piston of cylinder filled with gas. The volume of gas decreases.	On heating a cylinder filled with gases having a moveable piston. The volume of gases increases.	On increasing the number of moles of a gas in a closed cylinder. The volume increases.

GENERAL GAS EQUATION

General gas equation

On combining the Boyle's law, Charles's law and Avogadro's law,
 $PV = K$
 $V/T = K$
 $V/n = K$
 we get
 $PV = nRT$ (R is called general gas constant)
 This is called an ideal gas equation or general gas equation. This equation is completely obeyed by the ideal gases.

Rearrangement of general gas equation

Boyle's law
 $PV = nRT = K$

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

The pressure of air which can support 760 mm of Hg column at sea level is called one atmospheric pressure.

$$\begin{aligned}
 1\text{-atm} &= 76 \text{ cm of Hg} && = 760 \text{ mm of Hg} \\
 &= 760 \text{ torr} && = 14.7 \text{ psi} \\
 &= 101325 \text{ Pa (Nm}^{-2}\text{)} && = 1.01325 \text{ Bar} \\
 1 \text{ m}^3 &= 1000 \text{ dm}^3 \\
 1 \text{ dm}^3 &= 1000 \text{ cm}^3 \\
 1 \text{ dm}^3 &= 0.001 \text{ m}^3 \\
 1 \text{ cm}^3 &= 0.001 \text{ dm}^3 \\
 1 \text{ cm}^3 &= 10^{-5} \text{ m}^3 \\
 1 \text{ Nm} &= 1 \text{ J} \\
 1 \text{ cal.} &= 4.18 \text{ J} \\
 1 \text{ J} &= 0.239 \text{ cal}
 \end{aligned}$$

(when "n" and "T" are constant)
Charles's law $\frac{V}{T} = \frac{nR}{P} = K$

(when "n" and "P" are constant)
Avogadro's law $\frac{V}{n} = \frac{RT}{P} = K$

(when "T" and "P" are constant)

Ideal gas constant (R)

The value of R depends upon the units chosen for pressure, volume and temperature. It is independent of the nature of gas.

The value of "R" can be derived by using general gas equation.

$$PV = nRT$$

$$R = PV/nT$$

Units of R

When P is in atm and V in dm^3

$$R = 0.0821 \text{ dm}^3 \text{ atm K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

When P is in mm Hg or torr and V in dm^3 or cm^3 .

$$R = 62.4 \text{ dm}^3 \text{ mm Hg K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

$$R = 62400 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ torr K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

When P is in Nm^{-2} and V in m^3 (SI units)

$$R = 8.314 \text{ Nm K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

$$R = 8.314 \text{ JK}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

$$R = 1.987 \text{ calK}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

Formula for density of gas

$$d = \frac{PM}{RT}$$

Where,

d = Density of ideal gas

R = Ideal gas constant

P = Pressure of gas

T = Absolute temperature

Hence, density of an ideal gas is directly proportional to pressure and molar mass and inversely proportional to the absolute temperature.

(i) $d \propto P$ (ii) $d \propto M$ (iii) $d \propto \frac{1}{T}$ (iv) $d \propto \frac{1}{V}$

NOTE: Kinetic equation of gases can be employed to justify all the gas laws. In other words, it proves the gas laws to get their explanation from kinetic theory of gases.

CRITICAL THINKING?

Q.1 The smallest unit of measuring energy is

A. J

C. Cal

B. Ergs

D. N.m

Q.2 0.1 atm is equal to

A. 7600 torr

C. 760 mmHg

B. 1.47 psi

D. 101325 pa

Name of Scientist	Contribution
Bernoulli	Founder of KMT
Clausius	Derived Kinetic equation and deduced all the gas laws from KMT
Maxwell	Presented the law of distribution of velocities
Boltzman	Studied the distribution of energies among the molecules
Van der Waal	Corrected the pressure and volume factors in ideal gas equation to make it applicable to the real gases.

POSTULATES OF KINETIC MOLECULAR THEORY

- Every gas consists of large number of very small particles called molecules. Gases like He, Ne, Ar have mono-atomic molecules.
- The molecules of gas move haphazardly, colliding among themselves and with the walls of container changing their directions.
- The pressure exerted by the gas molecules is due to the collision of its molecules with the walls of container. The collisions among the molecules are perfectly elastic.
- The molecules of the gases are widely separated from one another and there are sufficient empty spaces among them.
- The molecules of the gases have no forces of attraction for each other
- The actual volume of molecules of a gas is negligible as compared to the volume occupied by the gas.
- The motion imparted to the molecules by gravity is negligible as compared to the effect of the continued collisions between them
- The average kinetic energy of the gas molecules varies directly as the absolute temperature of the gas

Clausius kinetic energy equation

$$PV = \frac{1}{3}mN\overline{c^2} \quad (\overline{c^2} \text{ is called mean square velocity})$$

Relationship between the absolute temperature and velocities of gas molecules

According to Maxwell distribution law of velocities

- Root mean square velocity (C_{rms}) = $\sqrt{\frac{3RT}{M}}$

Conclusions

- In gases and liquids, temperature is the measure of average translational kinetic energy of the molecules
- In solids, temperature is the measure of average vibrational kinetic energies of molecules.
- The average translational kinetic energy of gas molecules is directly proportional to the Kelvin temperature of a gas i.e.

$$E_k \propto T$$

- When heat flows from one body to another, the molecules in the hotter body give up some of their kinetic energy through collisions to the molecules in the colder body.

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

C_{rms} of a helium atom at room temperature is calculated by using

$$C_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{3RT}{M}}$$

$$M = 4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/mol}$$

CRITICAL THINKING?

Q.3 The gas with minimum speed at room temperature is

- A. He
C. H₂

- B. Ne
D. F₂

KINETIC INTERPRETATION OF TEMPERATURE

(i) Derivation

$$E_k = \frac{3RT}{2N_A}$$

$$E_k \propto T \text{ (since } \frac{3}{2} \frac{R}{N_A} \text{ is constant)}$$

(ii) Idea of heat flow:

When heat flows from a body at high temperature to a body at low temperature, molecules in the hotter body give up some of their kinetic energy to molecules of colder body through collisions.

(iii) Temperature of gases and liquids:

Temperature is measure of average translational kinetic energies of molecules.

(iv) Temperature of solids:

Temperature is measure of average vibrational kinetic energy of molecules because solid molecules show only vibrational motion.

(v) Absolute zero:

Temperature at which molecular motion ceases.

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

Absolute zero

The temperature at which motion of molecules ceases.

$$0\text{K} = -273.16^\circ\text{C} = -459^\circ\text{F}$$

The absolute temperature is unattainable and the current attempts resulted in temperature as low as 10^{-5}K

CRITICAL THINKING?

Q.4 Which of the following temperature can never exist

- A. -1°C
C. -1K

- B. -1°F
D. All of these

DISTINGUISH BETWEEN REAL AND IDEAL GASES

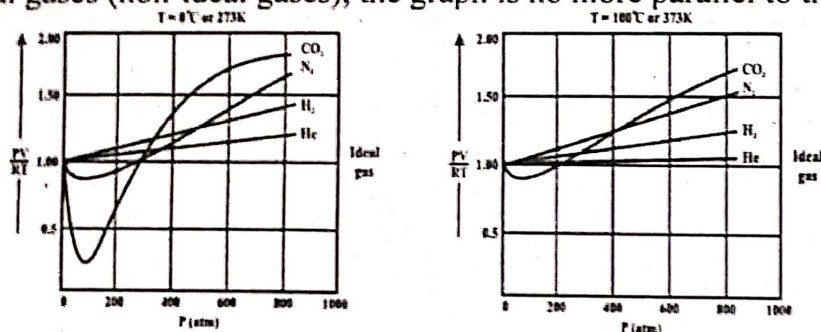
Comparative study of real and ideal gases

Ideal Gases	Real Gases
Ideal gas obeys the gas laws strictly under all T and P.	They do not obey the gas laws under all condition of T and P.
Their actual volume is negligible as compared to the volume of container.	They do possess some volume that is not negligible under highly compressed state.
There are no intermolecular attractions or repulsions.	There exist negligible forces of attraction or repulsion under ordinary conditions.
The molecules of an ideal gas undergo elastic collisions.	The molecules of a real gas undergo inelastic collisions.
They can not be liquefied.	They can be liquefied at critical temperature by applying critical pressure.

Non-Ideal Behavior of Gases

- If a graph is plotted between pressure on x-axis and the $\frac{PV}{nRT}$ (compressibility factor or Z) on y-axis for an ideal gas, a straight line parallel to the pressure axis is obtained.

- For real gases (non-ideal gases), the graph is no more parallel to the pressure axis.



At high temperature under low pressure, the graph for real gases come closer to the expected straight line.

- If $Z = 1$ then line would be parallel to x-axis.
- If $Z < 1$ then the line obtained will be below the line of ideal gas which means that there is larger decrease in volume of the gas than predicted by general gas equation due to the appearance of attractive forces present among the molecules.
- If $Z > 1$ then the line obtained will be above the line of an ideal gas which means that there is less decrease in the volume of the gas than predicted by the general gas equation due to appearance of repulsive forces present among the molecules.

Conclusion

- Gases are ideal at low pressure and non-ideal at high pressure.
- Gases are ideal at high temperature and non-ideal at low temperature.

Causes of deviation of real gases from ideal behavior

The real gases deviate from ideal behavior due to two faulty assumptions of KMT of gases. These are;

- The volume of the gas molecules themselves is negligible as compared to the total gas volume.
- There are no attractive forces among the molecules of a gas.

CONDITIONS NECESSARY FOR GASES TO APPROACH IDEAL BEHAVIOUR

- Gases behave ideally at high temperature. Because under these conditions, gases have high kinetic energy. That is the reason why the forces between them are weaker and each gas molecules behave almost independently and hence become ideally.
- Gases behave ideally at low pressure. Because under these conditions, gases have great distances between them. That is the reason why the forces between them are weaker and each gas molecules behave almost independently and hence become ideally.

VAN DER WAALS EQUATION FOR REAL GASES

The real gases deviate from ideal behavior due to two faulty assumptions of KMT of gases. These are;

- The volume of the gas molecules themselves is negligible as compared to the total gas volume.
- There are no attractive forces among the molecules of a gas.

Experimental observation and volume correction

When a gas is highly compressed then the whole volume of the container is not available to molecules because of their actual volume together with their effective volume which is not negligible under this condition. So we have to exclude this volume.

Actual volume of one mole of gas molecule = V_m

Effective volume of one mole of gas molecules = b

$$b = 4V_m$$

so,

$$V_{\text{free}} = V_{\text{vessel}} - b$$

Microscopic study of gas and pressure correction

When pressure on the gas is increased and its temperature is decreased the molecules come close to each other which results in the appearance of attractive forces among gas molecules.

A molecule in the interior of a gas is attracted by the other molecules on all sides so these attractive forces are cancelled out. However, when a molecule strikes the wall of the container, it experiences a force of attraction towards the other molecules in the gas. This decreases the force of its impact on the wall. This results a decrease in pressure denoted by P' . so the observed pressure is less than the ideal pressure P_i by an amount P' .

$$P = P_i - P'$$

$$P_i = P + P'$$

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

For real gases, it is observed that molecules occupy only 0.05% of the total volume at STP, but at 500 atm and 0°C , the volume occupied by gas molecules is 20% of the total volume.

Molecules attract one another at distances up to about 10 molecular diameters.

CRITICAL THINKING?

Q.5 The volume of real gas will change if “P” increases upto 500atm and temperature decrease upto 0°C

- A. Volume increases by 0.05%
C. Volume increases 20%

- B. Volume decreases by 0.05%
D. Vol decreases 20%

Mathematical Representation

Both these corrections can be represented mathematically by the modification of the general gas equation called the van der Waals equation.

- The increase in V caused by the effect of molecular volume is corrected by subtracting an amount nb from the observed volume, i.e.
 $V - nb$
- The change in pressure caused by the effect of intermolecular attractions is best corrected by adding an amount $\frac{an^2}{V^2}$ to the pressure.

Correction for intermolecular attraction

Correction for molecular volume

Van der Waal's equation $\left(P + \frac{an^2}{V^2}\right) (V - nb) = nRT$

For n moles of gas

$$P = \frac{nRT}{V - nb} - \frac{an^2}{V^2}$$

For one mole of gas

$$P = \frac{RT}{V - b} - \frac{a}{V^2}$$

Here “a” and “b” are called Van der Waals constant.

Units of (a)

- (i) $\text{Nm}^4 \text{mol}^{-2}$ (S.I Units)
(ii) $\text{atm dm}^6 \text{mol}^{-2}$ (other common units)

Units of (b)

- (i) $\text{m}^3 \text{mol}^{-1}$ (S.I Units)
(ii) $\text{dm}^3 \text{mol}^{-1}$ (other common units)



COURSE CONTENTS

- Properties of liquids
- Intermolecular forces
- Hydrogen bonding
- Evaporation
- Vapour pressure
- Boiling point and external pressure
- Anomalous behavior of water

INTRODUCTION

- Liquids states of matter is the intermediate state between the gaseous and the solid state
- In liquids the molecules of the matter are held together by strong intermolecular forces in comparison to those in gases.
- On the bases of kinetic molecular model, the liquids state is described as follow:
 - (i) A liquid is composed of small molecules
 - (ii) The molecules of the liquids or held closer by some kind of intermolecular forces.
 - (iii) The intermolecular forces are not very strong and thus the molecule is always in constant random motion.
 - (iv) The average kinetic energy of molecules of a liquid is directly proportional to their absolute temperature.

PROPERTIES OF LIQUIDS

	Property	Liquid state
1.	General	It has definite mass and volume but no definite shape
2.	Forces	Weaker than those in solids
3.	Density	Lower than solids
4.	Motion	Low values of motions
5.	Packing	Less closely packed
6.	Energy	Higher than solids
7.	Thermal expansion	Higher than solids
8.	Compression	Slightly higher than solids
9.	Intermixing	Spontaneous but slow
10.	Pressure	Negligible

FORCE OF ATTRACITONS

Intramolecular Forces

The forces, which are present within the molecules, are called intramolecular forces

Examples

- Covalent bond
- Ionic bond
- Co-ordinate covalent bond etc.

These forces are stronger as compared to intermolecular forces related to the chemical properties only.

Intermolecular Forces

The forces present among the molecules are called intermolecular forces.

1. Dipole-dipole forces
2. Ion-dipole forces
3. Dipole-induced dipole forces
4. Instantaneous dipole-induced dipole forces (London dispersion forces)
5. Hydrogen bonding

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

Intra: Attractive forces within molecules are called intramolecular forces.

Inter: Attractive forces between the molecules are called intermolecular forces.

Polar Molecules

- The heteroatomic molecules are usually polar.

Examples: CH_3Cl , HOCl , H_2SO_4 etc.

- Binary compounds whose central atom is from group VA, VIA or VIIA are dipolar

Examples: H_2S , HCl , HF etc.

Non-polar Molecule

- Mono-atomic or homoatomic molecules are always non-polar

Examples: H_2 , O_2 , F_2 , Cl_2 , N_2

- Binary compounds whose central atom is from group IIA, IIIA or IVA are non-polar. They have symmetrical shape.

Examples: BeCl_2 , BH_3 , CCl_4 etc. are also non-polar.

Significance

- ▶ All the intermolecular forces are electrostatic in nature and are resulted from the mutual attraction of unlike charges or the mutual repulsion of like charges.
- ▶ Many of the physical properties of liquids can be explained on the basis of intermolecular forces.

Dipole-Dipole Forces

The electrostatic forces of attraction produced when the positive end of one molecule attracts the negative end of neighbouring molecule are called dipole-dipole forces.

Factors affecting the strength of dipole-dipole forces

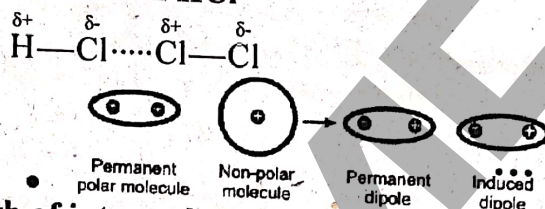
- Electronegativity difference between the bonded atoms
- Intermolecular distance

Examples

- These are present in polar molecules. e.g. HCl and CHCl_3
- These forces are approximately one percent as effective as a covalent bond.
- In gaseous phase, the dipole-dipole forces are least.
- Greater the strength of dipole-dipole forces, greater the values of melting point, boiling point, heat of vapourization and heat of sublimation.

Dipole-Induced Dipole Forces (Debye Forces):

- In the mixture polar and non-polar molecules, the positive end of the polar molecule attracts the mobile electrons of the nearby non-polar molecule. In this way polarity is induced in non-polar molecule, and both molecules become dipoles. These forces are called dipole induced dipole forces or as Debye force.
- **Example: Chlorine gas mixed in HCl**



Polarity created in a non-polar molecule under the influence of a permanent dipole is called **induced dipole**.

Factors affecting the strength of intermolecular forces

Ion-dipole force	Dipole-induced dipole force	London dispersion forces	Dipole-dipole forces	Hydrogen bond
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Charge density of the ion ▶ polarity of the molecule ▶ size of the molecule 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Polarity of polar molecule ▶ Size of the molecules ▶ Collision frequency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Size of the molecules ▶ Collision frequency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Polarity of molecules ▶ Size of the molecules ▶ Collision frequency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Polarity of molecules ▶ Number of utilizable lone pairs

LONDON DISPERSION FORCES (LDF)

The short-range forces of attraction created between one end of instantaneous dipole and the opposite end of the induced dipole are called instantaneous dipole induced dipole interaction or London Dispersion forces.

- A German physicist **Fritz London** explained these forces in 1930.
- These forces are present in all types of molecules whether polar or non-polar.

Variations

- London dispersion forces increase down the group due to increase in size hence the polarizability e.g. boiling point of fluorine (gas) is -188.1°C while that of iodine (solid) is $+184.4^\circ\text{C}$.
- In hydrocarbon with the increase of chain length the intermolecular forces increase e.g. the boiling point of ethane (C_2H_6) is -88.6°C and of hexane (C_6H_{14}) is 68.7°C .

CRITICAL THINKING?

- Q.1** The type of forces which exist in liquid hydrogen fluoride
 A. Only inter molecular forces
 B. Only intra molecular forces
 C. Both A & B
 D. HF does not exist as a liquid
- Q.2** Which of the following is expected to be a non polar pair of molecules?
 A. SO₂ and CO₂
 B. H₂ and CO
 C. CCl₄ and SiCl₄
 D. CO and CO₂

EVAPORATION**Evaporation**

The spontaneous change of a liquid into its vapours is called evaporation and it continues at all temperatures.

Example:



Characteristics	Factors affecting
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Natural phenomenon • Cooling process • Continued at all temperature • Endothermic process • Surface phenomenon 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Surface area of the liquid • Nature of the liquid <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Size of the molecules ▶ Shape of the molecules ▶ Intermolecular forces • Temperature • External pressure

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

- At equilibrium, the rate of evaporation equals the rate of condensation.
- Evaporation is surface phenomenon while boiling is the property of the bulk of liquid.
- The maximum vapour pressure developed by a liquid is its saturated vapour pressure at that temperature.

CRITICAL THINKING?

- Q.3** At its boiling point, which will have maximum vapour pressure?
 A. Water
 B. Ethanol
 C. Ether
 D. All have same

VAPOUR PRESSURE

Vapour Pressure

The pressure exerted by the vapours of a liquid in equilibrium with its liquid at a given temperature is called vapour pressure.

Factors affecting vapour pressure

- Nature of the liquid
 - ▶ Size of the molecules
 - ▶ Shape of the molecules
- Intermolecular forces
- Due to weaker intermolecular forces, at 20°C vapour pressure of isopentane is more (580 torr) than glycerol (0.00016 torr)
- External pressure

Name of compound	Vapour pressure at 20°C (torr)
Isopentane	580
Diethyl ether	442.2
Chloroform	170
Carbon Tetrachloride	87
Water	17.54
Mercury	0.012
Glycerol	0.00016

NOTE: Vapour pressure of water is 4.579 torr at 0°C. The rate of change of a vapour pressure with temperature can be calculated by Clausius Clapeyron equation.

BOILING POINT

Boiling Point

The temperature at which the vapour pressure of the liquid becomes equal to external pressure is called boiling point.

Boiling point depends upon external pressure.

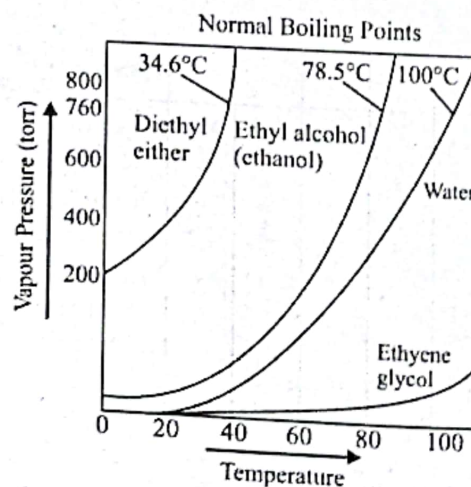
No.	External Pressure	Boiling Point of H ₂ O
(1)	1489 torr	120°C
(2)	700 torr	98°C (Murree Hills)
(3)	323 torr	69°C (Mount Everest)
(4)	23.7 torr	25°C

- Vapour pressure temperature curve shows that vapour pressure increases rapidly when the liquids are closer to their boiling points.

Factor affecting the boiling points:

Boiling points of liquids depend upon the following factors.

- ▶ Intermolecular forces
- ▶ External pressure



(i) **Intermolecular forces:**

Stronger the intermolecular forces, greater will be the boiling point and vice versa. Greater amount of heat will be required to

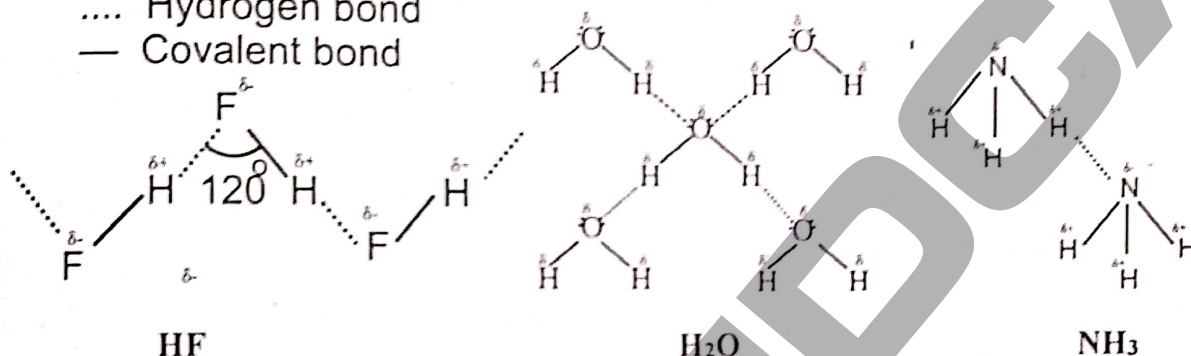
- ▶ Over-come strong intermolecular attractions
- ▶ Equalize vapour pressure with external pressure. Hence, boiling point will be high.

HYDROGEN BONDING

Hydrogen bonding is the electrostatic force of attraction between a highly electronegative atom and partial positively charged hydrogen atom.

.... Hydrogen bond

- Covalent bond



- Exceptionally low acidic strength of HF molecule as compared to HCl, HBr and HI is due to strong hydrogen bonding.
- Ammonia and hydrogen fluoride can form only one hydrogen bond due to presence of only one utilizable lone pair of electrons and one utilizable H-atom respectively.
- Water can form two hydrogen bonds as it has two utilizable hydrogen atoms and two utilizable lone pairs on oxygen atom.
- The strength of hydrogen bond is generally twenty times less than that of a covalent bond.

A comparison of inter-molecular forces

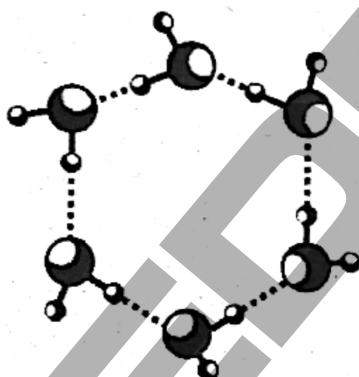
Forces	Strength	Characteristics
Ion -dipole	Moderate (10-50kJ/mol)	Occurs between ions and polar solvents
Dipole-dipole	Weak (3-4kJ/mol)	Occurs between polar molecules
London dispersion	Weak (1-10kJ/mol)	Occurs between all molecules
Hydrogen bond	Moderate (10-40kJ/mol)	H and N or O or F usually
Dipole induced dipole	Weak (1-2kJ/mol)	Occurs in mixture of polar and non-polar

Factors affecting molar heats

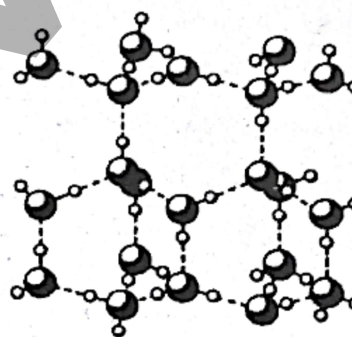
Nature of material	Polar liquids have high ΔH_v molar heat of vaporization than non-polar. Polar solids have high ΔH_f molar heat of fusion than non-polar.
Size of molecule	Larger the size of molecules, greater will be ΔH_v

Anomalous Behavior of Water (Structure of Ice)

- In ice, the oxygen atom of water molecule is surrounded by four H-atoms.
- The two H atoms are linked through covalent bond while the other two H-atoms are linked through H-bond.
- This is extended throughout creating the empty spaces in the structure.
- That is why when water freezes it occupies 9% more space and its density decreases.
- That's why ice floats on the surface of water.
- The lower density of ice than liquid water at 0°C causes water in ponds and lakes to freeze from surface to bottom.
- Water has maximum density 4°C .



A hexagon in the structure of ice

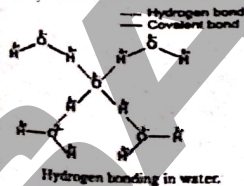


● Oxygen ○ Hydrogen
Three dimensional structure of ice

Properties of compounds containing hydrogen bond

Property	Description
Thermodynamic properties of covalent hydrides	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Greater the E.N difference, stronger will be hydrogen bond. Compounds with such condition have higher B.P than those molecules, which does not have such property. ▶ In HF and H₂O, more E.N.difference is between H and F than H and O, but water has high B.P than HF, it is due to greater number of H-bonds between water than in HF.
Application in biological compounds	<p>Fiber proteins Fiber proteins consist of large chains of amino acids and these chains are coiled about one another into a spiral. This spiral is called Helix. Such a helix may either be right handed or left handed (α-helix and β-helix). In both cases $>NH$ and $>CO$ adjacent to one another are linked together by H-bond.</p> <p>DNA Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) has two spiral chains. These are coiled about each other and are linked together by H-bond between the nitrogenous bases i.e. $A=T$ and $G\equiv C$ and give rise to double helical structure.</p> <p>Food Material The food materials like carbohydrates e.g. glucose, fructose and sucrose have $-OH$ groups which are responsible for the H-bond in them.</p>
Clothing	Hydrogen bonding is involved in thread.
Solubility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Compound with hydrogen bond is soluble in compound having hydrogen bond e.g. H₂O and C₂H₅OH are soluble with each other.
Cleansing action	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Soaps and detergents perform the cleansing action because the polar part of their molecules are water soluble due to hydrogen-bonding and the non-polar parts remain outside water, because they are alkyl or benzyl portions and are insoluble in water.
Hydrogen bonds in paints and dyes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ The adhesive property of paints and other dyes like glue etc. is due to hydrogen bond.
Structure of ice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ In ice, the oxygen atom of water molecule is surrounded by four H-atoms. The two H atoms are linked through covalent bond while the other two H-atoms are linked through H-bond. This is extended throughout creating the empty spaces in the structure. That is why when water freezes it occupies 9% more space and its density decreases. That's why ice floats on the surface of water.

Structure of ice





COURSE CONTENTS

- Introduction
- Types of solids
- Ionic solids
- Molecular solids
- Crystal lattice
- Lattice energy

TYPES OF SOLID	
Name	Details
Crystalline solids	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Molecules, ions or atoms arranged in specific three-dimensional pattern e.g. NaCl, KCl, sucrose, I₂ and ice etc.
Amorphous solids (Pseudo solids)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Molecules, ions or atoms do not have regular order of arrangement e.g. rubber, glue, glass etc.

PROPERTIES OF CRYSTALLINE SOLIDS

Property	Description
Geometric shape	Have definite geometry and shape.
Melting Point	Sharp melting points.
Cleavage planes	Whenever the crystalline solids are broken they do so along definite planes. These planes are called the cleavage planes .
Anisotropy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The property which depends upon the direction of crystal. ▪ Anisotropic properties: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (i) Refractive index (ii) Co-efficient of thermal expansion (iii) Electrical conductivities (iv) Thermal conductivities (v) Cleavage of crystalline solids
Symmetry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The repetition of faces, angles and edges when a solid is rotated by 360° along its axis is called symmetry. ▪ There are many types of symmetry elements: - <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Centre of symmetry ➤ Plane of symmetry ➤ Axis of symmetry

Property	Description
Habit of a crystal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The shape of crystal in which it usually grows is called habit of a crystal.
Isomorphism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The phenomenon in which two different compounds exist in the same crystalline form is called isomorphism. Many solids show isomorphism e.g. NaNO_3 and KNO_3 exhibit rhombohedral crystalline form.
Polymorphism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The phenomenon in which one compound contains more than one crystalline forms is called polymorphism. e.g. AgNO_3 exists in Rhombohedral and orthorhombic form. Compounds exhibit this phenomenon.
Allotropy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The phenomenon in which an element exists in more than one crystalline form is called allotropy. Carbon exists as graphite, diamond and Bucky balls. Elements exhibit this phenomenon.
Transition temperature	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is that temperature at which two crystalline forms of the same substance can co-exist in equilibrium with each other. Above and below this temperature only one form exists. <p>Grey tin (cubic) $\xrightleftharpoons{13.2^\circ\text{C}}$ White tin (tetragonal)</p>

LATTICE STRUCTURE OF CRYSTALLINE SOLIDS

Definition:

"An array of points representing the arrangement of particles (atoms, ions or molecules) in three dimensional spaces is called crystal lattice".

The regular arrangement of the particles of a crystalline solid at the microscopic level produces characteristic shapes of crystals.

Lattice:

"The position of the particles in a crystalline solid is represented by a Lattice"

It represents the structure of any substance. A lattice is of three types:

- Three-dimensional lattice
- Two-dimensional lattice
- One dimensional lattice

Structure of a crystal:

External structure of crystal:

The external shape of a crystal depends upon the conditions of crystallization. It may be different in one form or the other e.g., NaCl is cubic at ordinary conditions but octahedral in the presence of urea as impurity.

Internal structure of crystal:

The internal structure is the same with basic structural unit, although the conditions for crystallization are different. This unit describes the pattern by which the particles are arranged in a crystal.

Factors:

Primarily a crystal depends upon,

- Shape of the unit cell
- Contents of the unit cell

The atoms, molecules or ions in a crystal are repeated in a systematic manner.

Unit cell:

"The smallest unit of volume of a crystal, which shows all the properties of its pattern, is called a unit cell".

This is a basic structural unit of a crystal. It represents the structure of any substance. It has six parameters called cell dimensions or crystallographic elements i.e. three unit cell lengths a , b , c and three angles α , β , γ .

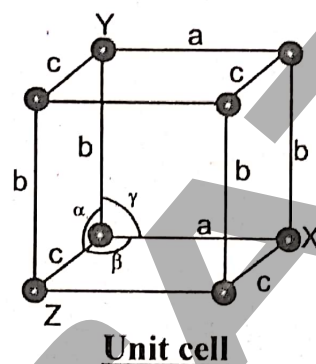
Contribution of cation or anion present at different positioning of cube in a unit cell.

Mid of cube = 1

Face of cube = $\frac{1}{2}$

Edge of cube = $\frac{1}{4}$

Corner of cube = $\frac{1}{8}$



CLASSIFICATION OF SOLIDS

Ionic Solid

Definition:

Those solids in which ions are held together by electrostatic forces / ionic bonds are called the ionic solids.

Properties of ionic solid

- The arrangement of ions in ionic solids is three-dimensional.
- They have high melting and boiling points and are non-volatile.
- The structure of an ionic crystal depends upon the radius ratio of cations and anions.
- They are non-conductors in solid state but they are conductors in molten state or solution form because in these forms, ions are free to move to conduct electricity.
- They are soluble in polar solvents and insoluble in non-polar solvents.

Structure of Sodium Chloride

Independent molecules of NaCl do not exist in vapour phase as well as in solid state. That is why NaCl is said formula unit of sodium chloride.

Sodium chloride has giant ionic structure

Co-ordination Number

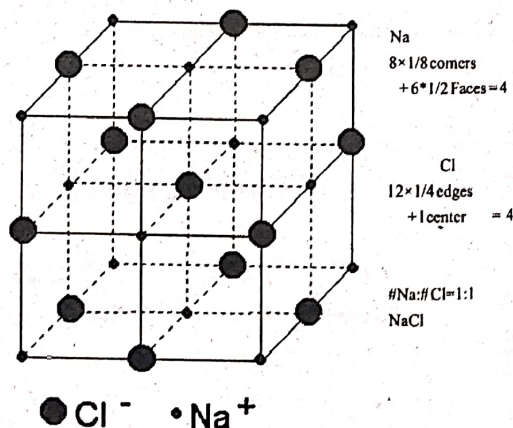
The number of ions of same kind that surround an oppositely charged ion is called co-ordination number.

In NaCl, each Na^+ ion surrounded by six Cl^- ions and each Cl^- ion is surrounded by six Na^+ ions.

So, co-ordination number of NaCl is 6.

Co-ordination No. of Na^+ is 6

Co-ordination No. of Cl^- is 6



CRITICAL CONCEPT!

The number of anions that can surround one cation is called coordination number

Number of formula units per unit cell

The unit cells that share one Cl^- ion at one corner = 8

A unit cell gets a share of one Cl^- ion at one corner = $\frac{1}{8}$

A unit cell gets a total share of Cl^- ion at eight corners = $8 \times \frac{1}{8} = 1$

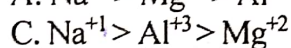
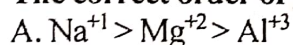
A unit cell gets a share of one Cl^- ion at one face = $\frac{1}{2}$

A unit cell gets a total share of Cl^- ions at six faces = $6 \times \frac{1}{2} = 3$

So, a unit cell gets a total number of Cl^- ions = 4Cl^-
Similarly, there are four Na^+ ions in a unit cell. Hence, there are four formula units (4NaCl) of NaCl in a unit cell.

CRITICAL THINKING ?

Q.3 The correct order of given cations is

**The Factors that affect the shape of an ionic solid**

There are three factors which affect the shape of an ionic crystal.

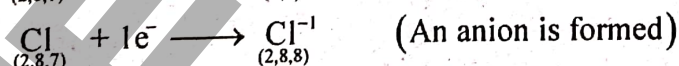
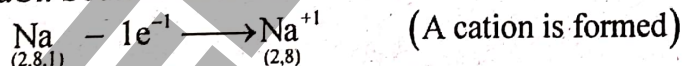
○ Electrostatic Forces of Attractions:

○ Radius ratio

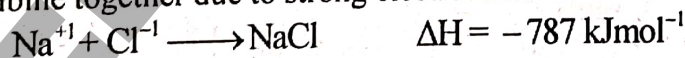
○ Poor conductivity

Electrostatic force of attractions

The ionic solids are composed of cations and anions. They are held together through strong electrostatic forces of attraction forming a well-defined geometric shape e.g. formation of NaCl . Sodium loses one electron and converted into Na^{+1} ions.



These ions combine together due to strong electrostatic force.



It is an exothermic reaction. To form a crystal lattice of NaCl , each Na^{+1} ion is surrounded by 6 Cl^{-1} ions and each Cl^{-1} ion is surrounded by 6 Na^{+1} ions. As a result a cubic structure of ionic solid of NaCl is formed.

(i) **Radius Ratio:**

The structure and shape of an ionic solid depends upon the radius ratio of cations and anions e.g. NaCl and CsF have the different geometry because the radius ratio is different in both the cases.

$$\text{Radius Ratio} = \frac{\text{Radius of cation}}{\text{Radius of anion}}$$

Thus knowledge of radius ratio consisting of cations and anions can give a good idea of the shape of crystal. And ionic compound with radius ratio greater than 0.732 will have cubic structure e.g. NaCl .

The radius ratio of an ionic compound with octahedral structure should be in between 0.414 and 0.732. Similarly, a tetrahedral structure is formed if the radius ratio is in between 0.22 to 0.414.

The Radius Ratio of the following ionic crystals are:

1. NaCl = 0.522 — Octahedral arrangement or cubic structure.
2. CsCl = 0.93 — Body centred cubic arrangement.
3. ZnS = 0.40 — Tetrahedral arrangement.

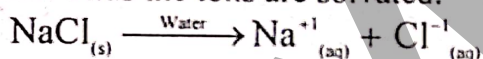
The structure and Limiting radius ratio of certain crystalline substances are given below:

No.	Shape of ionic solid	Limiting Radius Ratio r^+ / r^-
1.	Body centered cubic	0.732 and above
2.	Octahedral	0.414 to 0.732
3.	Tetrahedral	0.22 to 0.414
4.	Triangular	0.15 to 0.22

(ii) Poor Conductivity:

Ionic compounds do not have free ions to conduct electricity in solid state because ions are fixed at their positions. They conduct electricity in molten state or in aqueous solution when the ions are free to move.

In aqueous solution, the crystal lattice is broken into cation and anion because of high dielectric constant of water. Thus the ions are solvated.



Lattice Energy

The lattice energy can be defined in two ways.

“The amount of energy released when gaseous ions of opposite charges combine to give one mole of a crystalline ionic compound is called lattice energy”.



“The amount of energy required to break one mole crystal lattice into its gaseous ions is called lattice energy”.



Factors:

There are two factors which affect the lattice energy.

Size of ion (cation or anion):

Lattice energy decreases with the increase in the size of the ions (whether cations or anions), the packing of oppositely charged ions become less and less tight.

Charge of ion (cation or anion):

Lattice energy increases with increasing ionic charge. Increase in charge also increases the electrostatic force of attraction therefore lattice energy also increases.

Molecular Solids

The solids in which polar or non-polar molecules are held together by Van der Waal's forces (London forces) or Dipole-dipole forces (Hydrogen bonding) are called **molecular solids**.

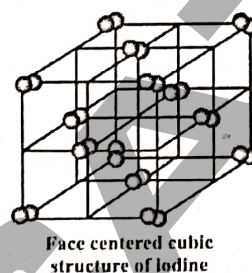
Ionic compound	Lattice energy (kJ mol)
LiCl	-833
NaF	-895
NaCl	-787
KCl	-690
NaBr	-728
KBr	-665
NaI	-690

Properties of molecular solids

- They are soft and easily compressible.
- They are mostly volatile and have low melting and boiling points
- They are bad conductors of electricity.

Structure of Iodine

- Iodine is a molecular solid.
- In the solid state, the molecules of iodine align in the form of layer lattice.
- I-I bond distance is 271.5 pm and it is appreciably longer than in gaseous iodine (266.6pm).
- Iodine is a poor conductor of electricity. Lattice points are occupied by I_2 molecules.
- It has face centered cubic structure.

**TYPE OF STRUCTURE AND BONDING PRESENT IN A SUBSTANCE**

Type of Solid	Structural	Intermolecular Forces	Typical Properties	Examples
Metallic	cations plus delocalized electrons	metallic bonds	hardness varies from soft to very hard; melting points varied from low to very high; lustrous; ductile; malleable; very good conductors of heat and electricity	Na, Mg, Al Fe, Zn, Cu, Ag, W
Ionic	cations and anions	electrostatic attractions	hard; moderate to very high melting points; nonconductors of electricity (but good electrical conductors in the molten state)	NaCl, NaNO ₃ , MgO
Molecular	molecules (atoms of noble gases)	London or dipole-dipole or hydrogen bonds	soft; low melting points; nonconductors of heat and electricity; sublime easily in many cases	Noble gas elements, CH ₄ , CO ₂ , P ₄ S ₈ , I ₂ , H ₂ O
Covalent network	atoms	covalent bonds	very hard; very high melting points; nonconductors of electricity	C(diamond), SiC, SiO ₂

TOPIC-6 >> CHEMICAL EQUILIBRIUM

COURSE CONTENTS

- Reversible and irreversible reactions
- State of chemical equilibrium
- Equilibrium constant expression for important reactions
- Applications of equilibrium constant
- The Le-Chatelier's principle
- Synthesis of ammonia by Haber's process
- Common ion effect
- Buffer solution
- Equilibria of slightly soluble ionic compounds (Solubility product)

INTRODUCTION

Rate of chemical reaction

The change in the molar concentration of the reactants or products per unit time is called rate of chemical reaction. Its unit is $\text{mol.dm}^{-3}\text{s}^{-1}$.

Chemical equilibrium

An apparent state of rest in a reversible chemical reaction where the rate of forward chemical reaction becomes equal to the rate of reverse reaction is called chemical equilibrium.

Characteristics of Chemical Equilibrium:

- It is established only in close system
- It can be established from either side
- It is a macroscopic property.
- It is a dynamic state because reaction is not stationary rather moving in both directions.

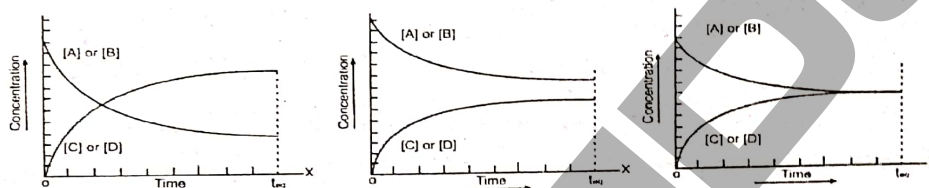
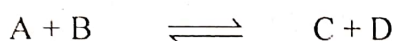
RATES OF FORWARD AND REVERSE REACTIONS AND DYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM

Reversible Reactions	Irreversible Reactions
Proceed in both directions i.e., forward and reverse	Proceed in one direction i.e., forward.
Reaction does not go to completion.	Reaction goes to completion usually.
represented by (\rightleftharpoons)	represented by (\rightarrow)
Dynamic equilibrium state is present	Dynamic equilibrium state is absent.
Examples $\text{N}_2 + 3\text{H}_2 \xrightleftharpoons{\text{Fe} / 450^\circ\text{C}} 2\text{NH}_3$ $\text{PCl}_5 \xrightleftharpoons{\text{High Pressure}} \text{PCl}_3 + \text{Cl}_2$	Examples $2\text{Na} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \longrightarrow 2\text{NaOH} + \text{H}_2$ $2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2 \longrightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

Types of Equilibria

Homogeneous Equilibrium	Heterogeneous equilibrium
A chemical equilibrium in which the reactants and products are in the same phase is called homogeneous equilibrium e.g. $2\text{SO}_{2(g)} + \text{O}_{2(g)} \rightleftharpoons 2\text{SO}_{3(g)}$	A chemical equilibrium in which the reactants and products are present in different phases is called a heterogeneous equilibrium e.g. $\text{CaCO}_{3(s)} \rightleftharpoons \text{CaO}_{(s)} + \text{CO}_{2(g)}$
Static Equilibria	Dynamic Equilibria
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conc. of reactants and products are constant Rate of reaction is zero 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conc. of reactants & products are constant Rate of reaction is not zero Rate of forward reaction = rate of reverse reaction

For a given reaction



Law of Mass Action

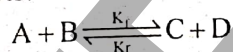
C.M Guldberg and P.Waage introduced this law in 1864.

Statement

It states that the rate at which the reaction proceeds is directly proportional to the product of the active masses of the reactants or their molar concentration.

Explanation

Consider a general reaction in which A and B are the reactants and C and D are the products.



$$R_f \propto [\text{A}][\text{B}]$$

$$R_f = k_f [\text{A}][\text{B}]$$

$$R_r \propto [\text{C}][\text{D}]$$

$$R_r = k_r [\text{C}][\text{D}]$$

At equilibrium state

$$R_f = R_r$$

$$k_f [\text{A}][\text{B}] = k_r [\text{C}][\text{D}]$$

On rearranging, we get

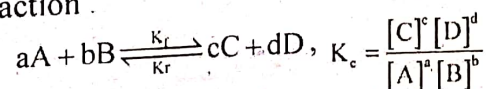
$$\frac{k_f}{k_r} = \frac{[\text{C}][\text{D}]}{[\text{A}][\text{B}]}$$

$$\frac{k_f}{k_r} = K_c$$

$$K_c = \frac{[\text{C}][\text{D}]}{[\text{A}][\text{B}]}$$

The constant K_c is called the equilibrium constant of the reaction.

For a more general reaction

**CRITICAL CONCEPT!**

Active mass means the concentration in mole dm^{-3} of the reactants which alter as a result of chemical reaction

What is K_c

The ratio of the product of the concentrations of the products to the product of the concentrations of the reactants is called equilibrium constant (K_c)

Characteristics of K_c

Factors	Expression
Depends upon	Temperature. i) Greater the temperature, greater will be the K_c value for endothermic reactions and vice versa. ii) Greater the temperature, lesser will be the K_c value for exothermic reactions and vice versa.
Independent of	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Initial concentration of reactants Pressure or volume Direction of reaction Catalyst
Units	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> When number of moles of reactants = number of moles of products, then K_c has no units. When number of moles of reactants \neq number of moles of products, then K_c has some units and can be calculated by using formula $K_c = (\text{moles.dm}^{-3})^{\Delta n}$ where $\Delta n = n_P - n_R$

CRITICAL THINKING?

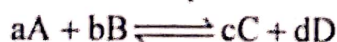
- Q.1** [A] represents the concentration of A in
- A. Grams
 B. Moles
 C. dm^3
 D. mol/dm^3

EQUILIBRIUM CONSTANT EXPRESSION FOR IMPORTANT REACITON

Reactions	Rate expression		
$\text{PCl}_5 \rightleftharpoons \text{PCl}_3 + \text{Cl}_2$	$K_c = \frac{[\text{PCl}_3][\text{Cl}_2]}{[\text{PCl}_5]}$	$K_c = \frac{x^2}{V(a-x)}$	$K_p = \frac{P_{\text{PCl}_3} \times P_{\text{Cl}_2}}{P_{\text{PCl}_5}}$
$\text{N}_2\text{O}_4 \rightleftharpoons 2\text{NO}_2$	$K_c = \frac{[\text{NO}_2]^2}{[\text{N}_2\text{O}_4]}$	$K_c = \frac{4x^2}{v(a-x)}$	$K_p = \frac{P_{\text{NO}_2}^2}{P_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_4}}$
$\text{N}_2 + 3\text{H}_2 \rightleftharpoons 2\text{NH}_3$	$K_c = \frac{[\text{NH}_3]^2}{[\text{N}_2][\text{H}_2]^3}$	$K_c = \frac{4x^2 V^2}{(a-x)(b-3x)^3}$	$K_p = \frac{P_{\text{NH}_3}^2}{P_{\text{N}_2} \times P_{\text{H}_2}^3}$
$2\text{SO}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightleftharpoons 2\text{SO}_3$	$K_c = \frac{[\text{SO}_3]^2}{[\text{SO}_2]^2 [\text{O}_2]}$	$K_c = \frac{4x^2 \cdot V}{(a-2x)^2 (b-x)}$	$K_p = \frac{P_{\text{SO}_3}^2}{P_{\text{O}_2} \times P_{\text{SO}_2}^2}$

Relation between different equilibrium constants

When concentrations are expressed in mole dm^{-3} , then



$$K_c = \frac{[C]^c [D]^d}{[A]^a [B]^b}$$

$$K_c = \frac{C_c^c C_d^d}{C_A^a C_B^b}$$

In case of gases, we use partial pressure and K_c changes to K_p .

$$K_p = \frac{P_C^c P_D^d}{P_A^a P_B^b}$$

$$K_p = K_c(RT)^{\Delta n}$$

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

$$K_p = K_c(RT)^{\Delta n}$$

Δn = number of moles of products - number of moles of reactants

R = General gas constant

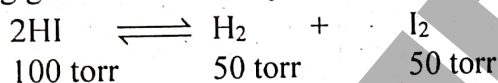
T = Absolute temperature

When $\Delta n = 0$ then, $K_p = K_c$

Calculation of Value of Equilibrium Constant:

Calculate the values of equilibrium constants in terms of concentrations or partial pressures from appropriate data.

Consider the following gaseous reaction system having partial pressure at equilibrium



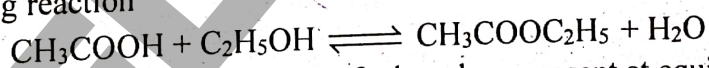
Its K_p can be calculated as

$$\begin{aligned} K_p &= P_{\text{H}_2} \cdot P_{\text{I}_2} / (P_{\text{HI}})^2 \\ &= 50 \times 50 / (100)^2 \\ &= 2500 / 10000 \\ &= 0.25 \end{aligned}$$

Calculating the Quantities Present at Equilibrium:

Calculate the quantities present at equilibrium, given appropriate data

Consider the following reaction



When two moles of acetic acid and two moles of ethanol are present at equilibrium, the number of moles of ester formed if K_c is 0.25.

$$K_c = \frac{[\text{CH}_3\text{COOC}_2\text{H}_5][\text{H}_2\text{O}]}{[\text{CH}_3\text{COOH}][\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}]}$$

$$0.25 = \frac{(x)(x)}{(2)(2)}$$

$$0.25 \times 4 = x^2$$

$$x = 1$$

CRITICAL THINKING?

Q.2 $K_p = K_c$ When

A. $n_R = n_P$

B. $n_R < n_P$

C. $n_R > n_P$

D. Not possible

APPLICATIONS OF EQUILIBRIUM CONSTANT (K_c)

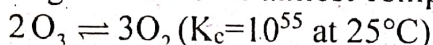
(i) Direction of Reaction:

$$K_c = \frac{[\text{products}]}{[\text{reactants}]}$$

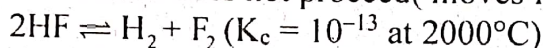
- If $[\text{Products}]/[\text{Reactants}] < K_c$ then reaction will proceed (forward)
- If $[\text{Products}]/[\text{Reactants}] > K_c$ then reaction will move backward (reverse)
- If $[\text{Products}]/[\text{Reactants}] = K_c$ then it means reaction is already at equilibrium.

(ii) Extent of Reaction:

- (a) If the value K_c is very large: reaction is almost complete



- (b) If K_c value is small : reaction does not proceed (moves forward) appreciably



- (c) If value of K_c is very small this shows a very little forward reaction.

(iii) The Effect of Conditions on The Position Of Equilibrium:

- K_c is equilibrium constant, it remains constant for a particular reaction at constant temperature
- It can be varied if external conditions like temperature, pressure and concentrations are altered.

NOTE:

If K_c is very small then products will be very much unstable.

If K_c is very large then the products will be very much stable.

THE LE-CHATelier's PRINCIPLE

Statement

This principle states that if a stress is applied to a system at equilibrium, the system acts in such a way so as to nullify it, as far as possible.

Applications of Le-Chatelier's principle

Le-Chatelier's principle helps in studying effect of followings on equilibrium position and equilibrium constant

- Effect of change of concentration.
- Effect of change of pressure or volume.
- Effect of change of temperature.
- Effect of catalyst on equilibrium.

Effect of change of concentration

- The addition of substance among the reactants, or the removal of a substance among the products at equilibrium stage disturbs the equilibrium position and reaction is shifted to forward direction.
- The addition of a substance among the products or the removal of a substance among the reactants will drive the equilibrium towards the backward direction.

NOTE: The reaction shifts in any direction on the addition of any substance just to keep the value of K_c constant.

Effect of change in pressure or volume

- The change in pressure or volume is important only for the reversible gaseous reactions where the number of moles of reactants and products are not equal.

(i) Theoretical study of effect of change of pressure or volume

The increase of pressure or decrease in volume shifts the reaction in direction of less number of moles and vice versa.

Examples:



The increase in pressure shifts the above reaction in forward direction and vice versa.



The increase in pressure shifts the above reaction in backward direction and vice versa.

(ii) Quantitative study of effect of pressure or volume

(a) If volume term is present in the numerator of K_c expression, then increase in pressure decreases the volume and reaction will shift in forward direction to increase the value of x^2 and to keep the value of K_c constant.

$$K_c = \frac{4x^2V}{(a-2x)^2(b-x)}$$

(b) If volume term is present in the denominator of K_c expression, then increase in pressure decreases the volume and reaction will shift in backward direction to decrease the value of x^2 and to keep the value of K_c constant.

$$K_c = \frac{x^2}{V(a-x)}$$

Effect of change in Temperature

(i) On Endothermic reactions.

- By increasing the temperature, reaction is favoured in forward direction.
- By decreasing the temperature, reaction is favoured in backward direction.



(ii) On Exothermic reactions.

- By decreasing the temperature, reaction is favoured in forward direction.
- By increasing the temperature, reaction is favoured in backward direction.



Effect of catalyst on Equilibrium Constant

A catalyst does not affect the equilibrium position and equilibrium constant of the reaction. It increases the rates of both forward and backward reactions, as it reduces the time to attain the equilibrium.

EFFECT OF CONDITIONS ON EQUILIBRIUM CONSTANT

Conditions	Position of equilibria	Equilibrium constant
Conc.	○ $[\text{R}] > [\text{P}]$ on reactant side	No effect
	○ $[\text{R}] < [\text{P}]$ on product side	
P or V	○ $n_R > n_P$ Pressure is increased → on product side	No effect
	○ $n_R > n_P$ Pressure is decreased → on reactant side	
	○ $n_R < n_P$ Pressure is increased → on reactants side	
	○ $n_R < n_P$ Pressure is decreased → on products side	
Temperature	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Temperature increase favours endothermic reaction Temperature decrease favours exothermic reaction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> $K_c \propto T$ for endothermic reaction $K_c \propto 1/T$ for exothermic reaction

APPLICATIONS OF CHEMICAL EQUILIBRIUM IN INDUSTRY

Particulars	Synthesis of NH_3 by Haber's process	Synthesis of SO_3
Introduction	F. Haber prepared in 1933.	In contact process H_2SO_4 is prepared.
Reaction	$\text{N}_2 + 3\text{H}_2 \rightleftharpoons 2\text{NH}_3 \quad \Delta H = -92.46\text{kJ}$	$2\text{SO}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightleftharpoons 2\text{SO}_3 \quad \Delta H = -194\text{kJ}$
Conditions for maximum production	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Removal of ammonia after regular intervals. Increase in pressure. Decrease in temperature. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Continuous supply of O_2. Increase in pressure. Decrease in temperature.
Catalyst	Pieces of iron crystals are embedded in fused mixture of MgO , Al_2O_3 and SiO_2 .	V_2O_5 , NO or Pt are used as catalyst.
Favorable conditions	$P = 200\text{-}300\text{atm}$ $T = 673\text{K}(400^\circ\text{C})$	$P = 1\text{atm}$ $T = 400\text{-}500^\circ\text{C} / 650^\circ\text{C}.$

NOTE:

- Equilibrium mixture contains 35% NH_3 by volume.
- Ammonia is separated by refrigeration of reaction mixture.
- 110 million tons ammonia is produced per annum.
- 80% is used in fertilizer.
- 13% Nitrogen fixation is done by Haber's process.

COMMON ION EFFECT

The addition of a common ion to the solution of a less soluble electrolyte suppresses its ionization and the concentration of unionized species increases, which may come out as precipitates.

Common ion effect increases

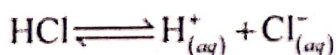
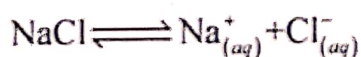
- Crystallization
- Association of ions

Common ion effect decreases

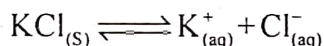
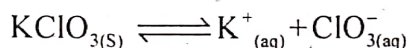
- Ionization / dissociation
- solubility

Applications

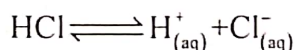
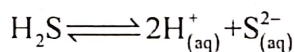
- Purification of NaCl



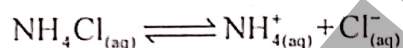
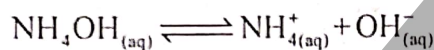
(ii) The solubility of a less soluble salt KClO_3 in water is suppressed by the addition of a more soluble salt KCl by common ion effect.



(iii) Decrease in dissociation of H_2S



(iv) An addition of NH_4Cl in NH_4OH solution suppresses the concentration of OH^- (aq) due to the presence of a large excess of NH_4^+ from NH_4Cl .

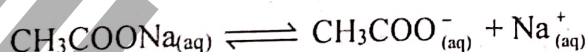
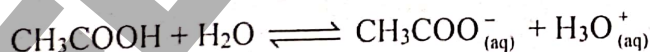


BUFFER SOLUTIONS

The solutions, which resist the change in their pH when a small amount of an acid or a base is added to them, are called buffer solutions.

How Buffer controls the pH?

Buffer action can be explained by keeping in view the concepts of common ion effect and Le-Chatelier's principle.



If we go on adding CH_3COONa in CH_3COOH solution, then common ions i.e. CH_3COO^- decreases the ionization of CH_3COOH .

The solution will have less hydrogen ion concentration and high pH value.

If CH_3COOH is in high concentration as compared to CH_3COONa then pH value of solution will be less.

Greater the concentration of acetic acid as compared to CH_3COONa , lesser will be the pH of the solution and vice versa. This is shown in table.

$[\text{CH}_3\text{COOH}]$ (mole dm^{-3})	$[\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-]$ (mole dm^{-3})	% Dissociation	pH
0.10	0.00	1.3	2.89
0.10	0.05	0.036	4.44
0.10	0.10	0.018	4.74
0.10	0.15	0.012	4.92

The buffer mentioned above is the large reservoir of CH_3COOH and CH_3COO^- components.

- Whenever an acid is added to this buffer and H^+ concentration increases, at this stage CH_3COO^- reacts to form undissociated CH_3COOH . So, pH of the buffer will remain almost same because H^+ ions which are added are captured by CH_3COO^- ion and pH will not vary too much.
- If base is added in this buffer, base will produce OH^- ions which combine with H_3O^+ to form neutral compound i.e H_2O . So, pH will remain almost unchanged.

NOTE: The buffer solution consisting of NH_4Cl and NH_4OH can resist the change in pH and pOH when acid or base is added from outside.

Calculating the pH of Buffer

Henderson's Equation for Acidic Buffer

$$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a + \log \frac{[\text{Salt}]}{[\text{Acid}]}$$

Other formations of this equation are

$$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a - \log \frac{[\text{Acid}]}{[\text{Salt}]}$$

$$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a - \log \frac{[\text{Acid}]}{[\text{Base}]}$$

$$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a + \log \frac{[\text{Base}]}{[\text{Acid}]}$$

Cases:

- If $[\text{salt}] = [\text{acid}]$ then $\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a$
- If $[\text{salt}] > [\text{acid}]$ then $\text{pH} > \text{pK}_a$
- If $[\text{salt}] < [\text{acid}]$ then $\text{pH} < \text{pK}_a$

Henderson's Equation for Basic Buffer

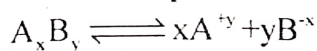
$$\text{pOH} = \text{pK}_b + \log \frac{[\text{Salt}]}{[\text{Base}]}$$

Cases:

- If $[\text{salt}] = [\text{base}]$ then $\text{pOH} = \text{pK}_b$
- If $[\text{salt}] > [\text{base}]$ then $\text{pOH} > \text{pK}_b$
- If $[\text{salt}] < [\text{base}]$ then $\text{pOH} < \text{pK}_b$

EQUILIBRIA OF SLIGHTLY SOLUBLE IONIC (Solubility Product)

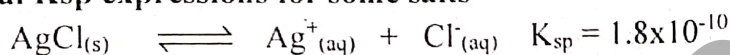
The product of the concentration of ions raised to an exponent equal to the co-efficient of the balanced equation.

General Expression

$$K_{sp} = [A^{+y}]^x [B^{-x}]^y$$

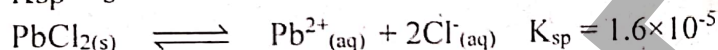
Applications

- Determination of K_{sp} from solubility of salts
- Determination of solubility from K_{sp}
- Prediction of precipitation
- Effect of common ion on solubility

General K_{sp} expressions for some salts

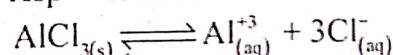
$$K_{sp} = [Ag^{+}][Cl^{-}]$$

$$K_{sp} = s^2$$



$$K_{sp} = [Pb^{2+}][Cl^{-}]^2$$

$$K_{sp} = 4s^3$$

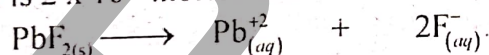


$$K_{sp} = [Al^{3+}][Cl^{-}]^3$$

$$K_{sp} = 27s^4$$

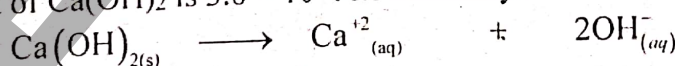
Calculate K_{sp} From Concentrations And Vice Versa

- (i) The solubility of PbF_2 is 2×10^{-3} moles / dm^3 . Its solubility product will be



$$K_{sp} = [Pb^{+2}][F^{-}]^2 = [2 \times 10^{-3}][2 \times 2 \times 10^{-3}]^2 = 32 \times 10^{-9} = 3.2 \times 10^{-8}$$

- (ii) The solubility product of $Ca(OH)_2$ is 3.6×10^{-8} . Its solubility is



$$K_{sp} = [Ca^{+2}][OH^{-}]^2 = [s][2s]^2 = 4s^3$$

$$s^3 = \frac{3.6 \times 10^{-8}}{4}$$

$$s = (9 \times 10^{-9})^{1/3} = 2.08 \times 10^{-3}$$

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

It is only applicable for those substances whose molar concentrations are less than 0.01M.

CRITICAL THINKING

Q.3

Conc. Of a salt in solution in water is 1.2M. it is considered as

- A. Less soluble salt
B. Readily soluble salt

- C. Slightly soluble salt
D. Insoluble salt

TOPIC-7 REACTION KINETICS

COURSE CONTENTS

- Rate of reaction
- Determination of the rate of a chemical reaction
- Factors affecting rate of reaction
- Specific rate constant or velocity constant
- Units of rate constant
- Order of reaction and its determination
- Explain the meaning of the terms activation energy and activated complex
- Relate the ideas of activation energy and the activated complex to the rate of a reaction

INTRODUCTION

Reaction kinetics

The studies concerned with rates of chemical reactions and factors that affect the rates of chemical reactions and the mechanism of reactions constitute the subject matter of reaction kinetics

Chemical reactions

The breaking of pre-existing bonds and the formation of new bonds is called chemical change or chemical reaction.

On the basis of rate of reaction, chemical reactions can be broadly classified into three types

(i) Very fast reaction $(\text{AgNO}_3 + \text{NaCl} \longrightarrow \text{AgCl} + \text{NaNO}_3)$

(ii) Very slow reaction $(2\text{Fe} + 3\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2 \longrightarrow \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O})$

(iii) Moderately slow reactions $(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH} + \text{CH}_3\text{COOH} \longrightarrow \text{H}_3\text{COOC}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{H}_2\text{O})$

RATE OF REACTION

The change in concentration of a reactant or a product divided by the time taken for the change is called rate of reaction.

$$\text{Rate of reaction} = \frac{\text{Change in concentration of the substance}}{\text{Time taken for the change}}$$

$$\text{Rate of reaction} = dx/dt$$

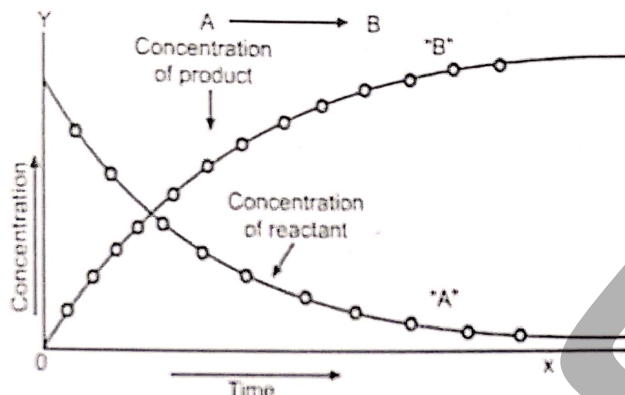
The rate of a general reaction.

$\text{A} \longrightarrow \text{B}$ can be expressed as

$$\text{Rate of reaction} = \frac{-d[\text{A}]}{dt} = \frac{+d[\text{B}]}{dt}$$

Units of rate of reaction:

The units for rate of reaction are $\text{mol dm}^{-3}\text{s}^{-1}$



Example:

For a certain reaction, the concentration of reactant changes from 0.75 mol dm^{-3} to $0.50 \text{ mole dm}^{-3}$ in 25 sec then rate of reaction is

$$\text{Rate of reaction} = \frac{\Delta C}{dt} = \frac{0.25}{25} = \frac{1}{100}$$

$$\text{Rate of reaction} = 10^{-2} \text{ mol dm}^{-3}\text{s}^{-1}$$

NOTE: For a gas phase reaction, units of pressure are used in place of molar concentration.

Types of reaction rate

Average rate

The rate of reaction between two specific time intervals is called average rate.

Instantaneous rate

The rate at any one instant during a specific interval of time is called instantaneous rate.

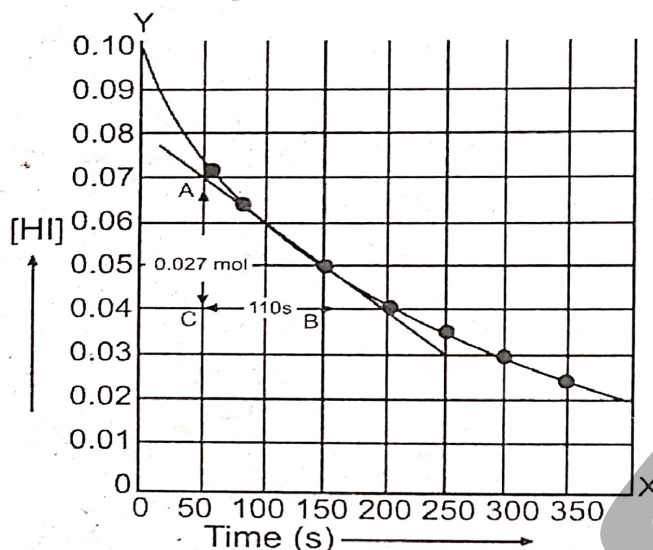
Comparison of instantaneous and average rate:

- The average rate and instantaneous rate are equal for only one instant in any time interval.
- At the beginning of reaction, the instantaneous rate is higher than the average rate.
- At the end of reaction, the instantaneous rate is less than the average rate
- The average rate will be equal to instantaneous rate, when the time interval approaches zero.

DETERMINATION OF RATE OF REACTION

- Determination of rate of reaction involves the measurement of concentration of reactants.
- Graph is plotted between concentration of reactant and time to get a curve.
- Select any two points in a curve.
- Make a right angle triangle of these points.
- Getting the $\tan\theta$ of right angle triangle, we shall get

$$\text{Rate of reaction} = \frac{\text{Change in concentration of reactant}}{\text{Change in time}}$$



The change in the HI concentration with time for the reaction $2\text{HI}_{(g)} \rightleftharpoons \text{H}_{2(g)} + \text{I}_{2(g)}$ at 508°C

$$\text{Rate of reaction} = \frac{\Delta c}{\Delta t} = \frac{0.027}{110} = 2.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol} / \text{dm}^3 / \text{Sec}$$

Methods for the determination of rate of a chemical reaction

Physical Methods

Techniques	Details
Spectrometry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Spectrophotometer is used. ▶ Reactants and products absorb U.V, I.R radiations ▶ Amount of radiation absorbed give rate of reaction
Electrical conductivity method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Conductometer is used ▶ Conductivity depends on the concentration of ions in the solution. ▶ Conductivity of ions of reactants give rate of reaction
Dilatometric method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ It is applied to the reaction in which volume of solution is changed. ▶ Volume change of a reaction is proportional to extent of reaction.
Optical rotation method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Polarimeter is used ▶ Reacting molecules rotates angle of rotation of plane polarized light ▶ Value of angle of rotation gives information about rate of reaction
Refractometric method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Refractometer is used ▶ It is applied to the reaction in which change in refractive indices occurs ▶ Transformation of glucose into alcohol can be analyzed regarding rate of reaction through this method

Chemical Method

- In chemical method acid based titration is used to determine the rate of reaction

FACTORS AFFECTING THE RATE OF REACTION

Name	Details
Nature of reactant	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> More active reactants give fast rate of reaction Number of electrons present in innermost shell affects the reactivity of reactant. Elements of IA are more reactive than IIA. Neutralization reactions and decomposition reactions are very fast. Oxidation reduction reactions are slower. Ionic reactions are very fast.
Concentration of reactant	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reaction is due to effective collision of reactant molecules. Greater concentration of reactants, more effective collisions, thus, rate of reaction will be high. In case of reactants in gases, their concentration is increased by increasing their partial pressures Rate of reaction is directly proportional to concentration of reactants Sometime concentration of reactant become double and rate of reaction increases four times.
Surface area	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Greater the surface area, greater will be chance of contact of molecules Greater surface area of molecules, greater will be rate of reaction.
Light	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Light travel in the form of photons. Photons have energy depending on frequency of light. Light gives the energy to reactants to form activated complex in minimum time. Light increases the rate of reaction.
Temperature	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> By increasing temperature, the number of collisions of molecule increases. Rate of reaction increases by increase in temperature of reaction On increasing temperature by 10K, the rate of reaction becomes doubled. Arrhenius equation: $k = Ae^{-E_a/RT}$ (it gives us the quantitative effect of temperature on rate of reaction.

Arrhenius equation

According to Arrhenius Equation

$$k = Ae^{-E_a/RT}$$

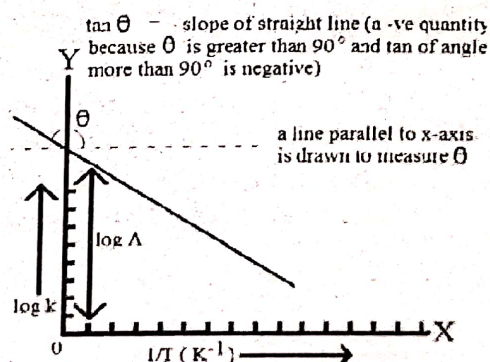
In this equation

k = specific rate constant

A = Arrhenius constant

It tells us about collision frequency.

- This equation explains the effect of temperature on the rate constant of reaction.
- k is exponentially related to activation energy and temperature.

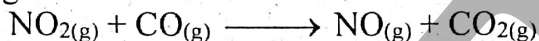


- When a graph is plotted between $\frac{1}{T}$ on x-axis and $\log k$ on y-axis, a straight line is obtained with a negative slope. Actually, $\frac{E_a}{RT}$ has negative sign so the straight line has two ends in second and fourth quadrants.
- Slope = $\frac{-E_a}{2.303R}$ unit of slope is Kelvin
- This equation helps us to determine activation energy of the reaction.
- $E_a = -\text{Slope} \times 2.303R$

Unit of activation energy is Joule mole⁻¹, greater is value of activation energy smaller is k value hence smaller will be the rate

Rate determining step

When the reaction completes in more than one step, then the slowest step will give the overall rate of reaction, thus slowest step of such a reaction is called rate determining step. Consider the following reaction.



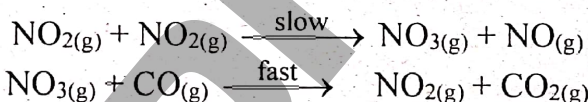
The rate equation of this reaction is found to be:

$$\text{Rate} = k[\text{NO}_2]^2$$

This equation shows that rate of reaction is independent of the concentration of CO. In other words, the equation gives us information that

- Reaction takes place in more than one step i.e the mechanism of this reaction is different than as shown in balanced chemical equation.
- Two molecules of NO_2 are involved in the rate determining step.

The proposed mechanism for this reaction is as follows.



- The first step is the slowest step and the rate determining step.
- Order of reaction is 2nd with respect to NO_2 but it is independent of CO concentration.
- NO_3 which does not appear in balanced chemical equation is reaction intermediate.

Reaction Intermediate:

A species which has temporary existence and it is unstable relative to the reactants and products and does not appear in the balanced chemical equation is called reaction intermediate.

This is a specie with normal bonds and may be stable enough to be isolated under special conditions.

Example:

In above reaction, NO_3 is reaction intermediate.

SPECIFIC RATE CONSTANT OR VELOCITY CONSTANT

Definition:

The rate of reaction when the concentrations of the reactants are unity is called specific rate constant of a chemical reaction.

Explanation

According to law of mass action for a general chemical reaction



$$\text{Rate of reaction} = k[A]^a[B]^b$$

Here 'k' is called specific rate constant or velocity constant for the reaction.

- o Let $[A] = 1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$ and $[B] = 1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$

$$\text{Rate of reaction} = k \times 1^a \times 1^b = k$$

- o Under the given conditions, k remains constant, but it changes with temperature.

NOTE: There is only one factor i.e. temperature which affects the specific rate constant

Difference between rate of reaction and rate constant of reaction

Rate of reaction	Rate constant of reaction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ The change in concentration of a reactant or a product divided by the time taken for the change is called rate of reaction. ▶ Its unit is $\text{mol dm}^{-3}\text{s}^{-1}$. ▶ It depends upon concentrations of reactants. ▶ It varies with the passage of time under given conditions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ It is the proportionality constant, which is represented by k, in rate equation. ▶ Its units depend on the order of reaction. ▶ It is independent of the concentration of reactant or products. ▶ It always remains constant under the given conditions.
Example $aA + bB \longrightarrow cC + dD$ Rate of reaction $= k[A]^a[B]^b$	Example: $aA + bB \longrightarrow \text{Product}$ $k = \frac{\text{Rate}}{[A]^a[B]^b}$

UNITS OF RATE CONSTANT

By using the expression,

$k = (\text{Concentration})^{1-n} (\text{time})^{-1}$, the unit of rate constant for n th order reaction can be determined.

Examples:

(i) For **zero order** reaction, the units of rate constant k are given by:

Units of $k = (\text{concentration})^{1-n} (\text{time})^{-1}$
 For zero Order $n = 0$

Units of $k = (\text{mole/dm}^3)^{1-0} (\text{s})^{-1}$
 Unit of $k = (\text{mole/dm}^3)^1 \text{s}^{-1}$
 $k = \text{moles.dm}^{-3}.\text{s}^{-1}$

(ii) For **first order** reaction, the units of rate constant are given by:

Units of $k = (\text{concentration})^{1-n} (\text{time})^{-1}$
 For first order $n = 1$
 Units of $k = (\text{moles/dm}^3)^{1-1} \text{s}^{-1}$
 Units of $k = (\text{moles/dm}^3)^0 \text{s}^{-1}$
 Units of $k = \text{s}^{-1}$

(iii) For **second order** reaction, the units of rate constants k are given by:

Units of $k = (\text{concentration})^{1-n} (\text{time})^{-1}$
 For second order $n = 2$
 Units of $k = (\text{mole/dm}^3)^{1-2} (\text{s})^{-1}$
 Units of $k = (\text{mole/dm}^3)^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$
 Units of $k = \text{moles}^{-1} \text{dm}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$
 Units of $k = \text{dm}^3 \text{moles}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$

(iv) For **third order** reaction, the units of rate constant are given by:

Units of $k = (\text{concentration})^{1-n} (\text{time})^{-1}$
 For third order $n = 3$
 Units of $k = (\text{moles / dm}^3)^{1-3} (\text{s})^{-1}$
 Units of $k = (\text{mole/dm}^3)^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$
 Units of $k = \text{mole}^{-2}.\text{dm}^{-6} \text{s}^{-1}$
 Units of $k = \text{dm}^6 \text{moles}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$

HALF-LIFE AND 1ST ORDER OF REACTION

Half-life and order of reaction are related to each other as follows

$$[t_{1/2}]_n \propto \frac{1}{a^{n-1}}$$

The relationship between the half-life and initial concentration of the reactants of different order reactions are given below

Order	Zero	First	Second	Third
Relation	$\left(t_{\frac{1}{2}}\right)_0 = \frac{a}{2k}$	$\left(t_{\frac{1}{2}}\right)_1 = \frac{0.693}{k}$	$\left(t_{\frac{1}{2}}\right)_2 = \frac{1}{ka}$	$\left(t_{\frac{1}{2}}\right)_3 = \frac{1.5}{ka^2}$

HALF-LIFE PERIOD OF FIRST ORDER REACTION

The time required to convert 50% of the reactants into products is called half-life period.

Example

(i) Half-life period of N_2O_4 at 45°C is 24 minutes.

(ii) Half-life period of ${}^{235}_{92}\text{U}$ is 7.1×10^8 or 710 million years.

Important points

- Half-life period of zero order reaction is directly proportional to the initial concentration of the reactants.
- Half-life period of first order reaction is independent to the initial concentration of the reactants.
- Half-life period of second order reaction is inversely proportional to the initial concentration of the reactants.
- Half-life period of third order reaction is inversely proportional to the square of initial concentration of reactants.

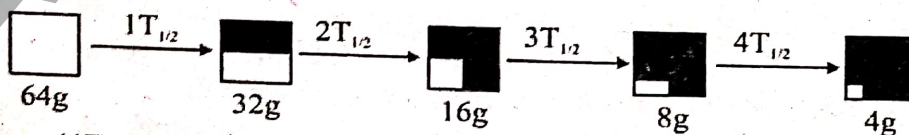
Example:

Half-life of radioactive decay is 1.5 hours. Mass of it remained after 6 hours is (initial mass of isotope is 64 g)

$$\text{Number of half-lives} = \frac{\text{Total time taken}}{\text{Half-life period}}$$

$$\text{Number of half-lives} = \frac{6 \text{ hours}}{1.5 \text{ hours}} = 4$$

Initial amount



After 6 hours ($4T_{1/2}$), the mass remained is 4g

Example:

75% of A 1st order reaction was completed in 32Min, when was 50% of the reaction was completed:

75% of reaction is completed in 2 half-lives.

Therefore,

$$2[t_{1/2}] = 32 \text{ min}$$

$$[t_{1/2}] = \frac{32}{2} \text{ min} = 16 \text{ min}$$

Hence, 50% of the reaction is completed in 16 min.

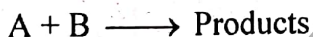
NOTE: This example shows that half-life of first order reaction always remains same with different initial concentration.

The half-life period for the decomposition of N_2O_5 at 45°C is 24 minutes. It means that if we decompose 1 mol/dm^3 of N_2O_5 then after 24 minutes half amount will be decomposed and 0.5 mol/dm^3 will be left behind.

CALCULATION OF RATE CONSTANT

(i) When rate equation, rate of reaction and concentrations are given

For a reaction



$$\text{Rate} = k[\text{A}][\text{B}]$$

If rate = $1.0 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}\text{s}^{-1}$ and $[\text{A}] = [\text{B}] = 0.05 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$

Then

$$\text{Rate} = k[\text{A}][\text{B}]$$

$$1.0 = k[0.05][0.05]$$

$$k = \frac{1.0}{[0.05][0.05]}$$

$$k = \frac{10000}{25} = 400 \text{ dm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

(ii) For 1st order reaction $t_{\frac{1}{2}}$ is 69.3 seconds, its specific rate constant is

$$\left(t_{\frac{1}{2}}\right)_1 = \frac{0.693}{k}$$

$$69.3 = \frac{0.693}{k}$$

$$k = 10^{-2}$$

(iii) When E_a and T are given

The formulae used are

$$k = Ae^{\frac{E_a}{RT}}$$

$$\log k = \frac{-E_a}{2.303R} \times \frac{1}{T} + \log A$$

If value of $e^{\frac{E_a}{RT}}$ factor is 1.71×10^{-9} and A is 10^3 Then

$$k = Ae^{\frac{-E_a}{RT}}$$

$$k = 10^3 \times 1.71 \times 10^{-9}$$

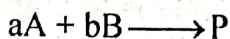
$$k = 1.71 \times 10^{-6}$$

ORDER OF REACTION AND ITS DETERMINATION

The sum of all the exponents to which the concentrations in the rate equation are raised is called order of reaction.

OR

The number of reacting molecules, whose concentration alter as a result of the chemical change, is called order of reaction.



$$\frac{dx}{dt} = k[A]^a[B]^b$$

$$\text{Order of reaction} = a + b$$

Important points

- The order of a reaction is an experimentally determined quantity and cannot be inferred simply by looking at the reaction equation.
- The sum of the exponents in the rate equation may or may not be the same as in a balanced chemical equation.
- The order of reaction provides valuable information about the mechanism of a reaction.
- Maximum order of reaction is three
- Order of reaction can be zero or can be in fraction
- Order of reaction is related with rate equation and is controlled by rate law.
- Order of reaction help us to determine mechanism of reaction
- If the molecularity and order of reaction is same then it is said to be a simple reaction, otherwise it is multistep reaction.

The chemical reactions are classified as

- Zero order reaction
- First order reaction
- Second order reaction
- Third order reaction
- Pseudo first order reaction
- Fractional order reaction

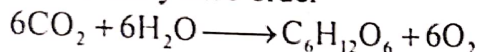
CRITICAL CONCEPT!

- The order of a reaction can be found by comparing the initial rates of two reactants of known concentration
- Once the order has been found, the rate constant can be calculated.

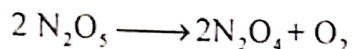
Examples of order of reactions

Zero order reactions

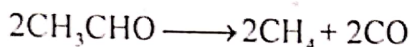
Photochemical reactions are usually zero order



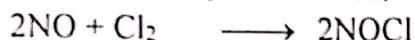
First order reaction



Second order reactions



Third order reactions

**CRITICAL THINKING?**

Q.1 Rate constant K for nth order reaction can be determined by _____ formula

A. $K = \text{Rate} / [\text{Reactants}]$

B. $K = \text{Rate} \times [\text{Reactants}]$

C. $K = \text{Rate} / [\text{Reactants}]^n$

D. $K = \text{Rate} \times [\text{Reactants}]^n$

DETERMINATION OF ORDER OF REACTION

Finding the Order of Reaction

Methods to determine the order of reaction

Five methods are available.

- (i) Method of hit and trial
- (ii) Graphical method
- (iii) Differential method
- (iv) Half-life method
- (v) Method of large excess
- (vi) Initial rate method

From Half-life:

It is mentioned earlier; half-life of a reaction is inversely proportional to the initial concentration of reactants raised to the power one less than the order of reaction.

Therefore, $(t_{1/2})_n \propto \frac{1}{a^{n-1}}$

Let us perform a reaction twice by taking two different initial concentrations 'a₁' and a₂ their half-life periods are found to be t₁ and t₂ respectively.

$$t_1 \propto \frac{1}{a_1^{n-1}} \quad \text{and} \quad t_2 \propto \frac{1}{a_2^{n-1}}$$

Dividing the two relations:

$$\frac{t_1}{t_2} = \frac{a_2^{n-1}}{a_1^{n-1}}$$

$$\frac{t_1}{t_2} = \left[\frac{a_2}{a_1} \right]^{n-1}$$

Taking 'log' on both sides

$$\log \frac{t_1}{t_2} = (n-1) \log \left[\frac{a_2}{a_1} \right]$$

On rearranging the above equation:

$$n = 1 + \frac{\log \left[\frac{t_1}{t_2} \right]}{\log \left[\frac{a_2}{a_1} \right]}$$

So, if we know the two initial concentrations and two half-life values we can calculate the order of reaction (n).

Initial rate method:

The effect of change in concentration on the rate of a chemical reaction can be understood from the following gaseous reaction.



[NO] (mol dm ⁻³)	[H ₂] (mol dm ⁻³)	Rate (atm min ⁻¹)
0.006	0.001	0.025
0.006	0.002	0.050
0.006	0.003	0.075
0.001	0.009	0.0063
0.002	0.009	0.025
0.003	0.009	0.056

$$\text{Rate} \propto [\text{H}_2]$$

$$\text{Rate} \propto [\text{NO}]^2$$

$$\text{Rate} = K[\text{H}_2][\text{NO}]^2$$

It is third order reaction.

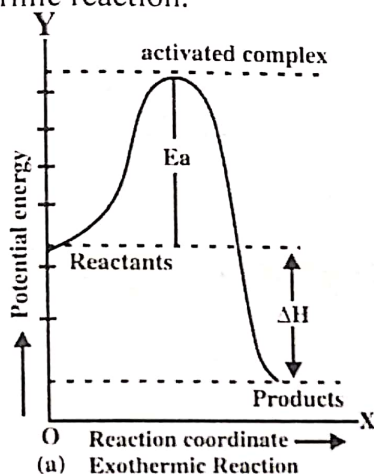
ACTIVATION ENERGY AND ACTIVATED COMPLEX

The minimum amount of energy, in addition to the average kinetic energy, which the particles must have for effective collisions, is called activation energy.

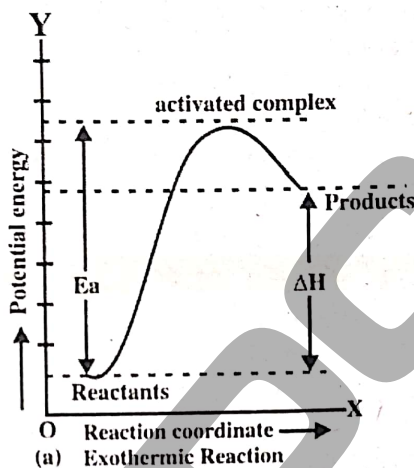
Important points

- Reactants go into transition state before going into product called activated complex.
- Energy of activated complex is higher than reactants and products.
- In effective collision, molecules have certain amount of energy and collide in certain orientation.

- When the energy of products is lesser than reactants, the reaction is exothermic.
- When the energy of products is higher than reactants, the reaction is endothermic.
- Energy of activation of forward reaction is less than backward reaction for an exothermic reaction.
- Energy of activation for backward reaction is less than forward reaction for an endothermic reaction.



(a) Exothermic Reaction



(a) Exothermic Reaction

A graph between path of reaction and the potential energy of the reaction

The reactants reach the peak of curve to form activated complex. E_a is the energy of activation and it is as potential energy hill between reactants and products.

- Colliding molecules which have proper energy will be able to climb up the hill and will give product.
- Colliding molecules whose initial kinetic energy is less than E_a will fail to climb up the hill fall back chemically unchanged.

Exothermic Reaction:

In exothermic reaction, the potential energy of the products is lower than the potential energy of the reactants. The difference is denoted by ΔH . The value of ΔH depends upon the initial state (the potential energy of reactants) and final state (the potential energy of products). It does not depend upon route of reaction, rate of reaction and activation energy of reaction. The reactants require energy E_{a1} which is equal to the activation energy to get the top of barriers. Anyhow, products require energy E_{a2} which their activation energy to get to top of higher hill to form activated state. This energy is more than E_{a1} .

$$E_{a1} = \text{Energy of activation for forward step}$$

$$E_{a2} = \text{Energy of activation for backward step.}$$

The magnitude of ΔH is also the difference of these two energies of activation.

$$E_{a1} - E_{a2} = \Delta E \text{ or } \Delta H$$

From this it is clear that for exothermic reactions the activation energy for forward reaction is less than the activation energy for backward reaction.

NOTE:

- ΔH is the difference of potential energies of products and reactants.
- ΔH is also the difference of activation energy of reactants and products.

Endothermic Reaction:

In endothermic reactions the potential energy of the products is higher than the potential energy of the reactants and for such reactions a continuous source of energy is needed to complete the reaction. In such reactions, the enthalpy change ΔH is positive since energy is absorbed in the reaction. For endothermic reversible reaction, the energy of activation for forward reaction is greater than the energy of activation for backward reaction.

Conclusions

Energy of activation for forward and backward reactions are different for all reactions.

For exothermic reaction, energy of activation for forward reaction is less than the energy of activation for backward reaction.

For endothermic reaction, energy of activation for forward reaction is greater than the energy of activation for backward reaction.

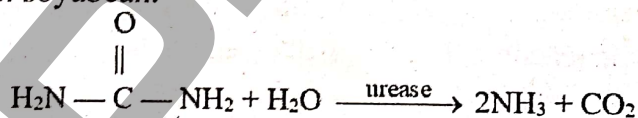
ENZYME CATALYSIS**Enzyme catalysis**

Enzymes are bio-catalytical proteins, which increase the rate of biochemical reactions.

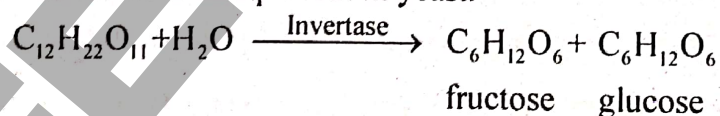
- The substance on which an enzyme can attack is called substrate.
- The point through which an enzyme attacks on substrate called active site.
- Each enzyme has its own active site.
- Enzymes are highly specific for substrate.
- Enzyme and substrate form enzyme-substrate complex, which then breaks into product and enzyme.
- The name of enzyme usually ends on "ase".

Examples

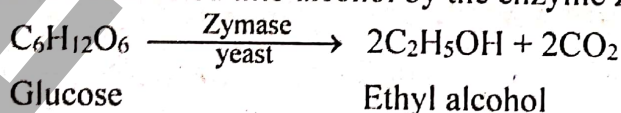
- (i) Urea undergoes hydrolysis into NH_3 and CO_2 in the presence of enzyme urease, which is present in soyabean.



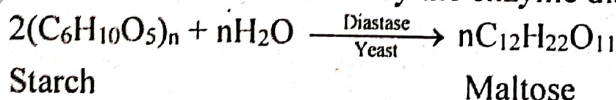
- (ii) Concentrated sugar solution undergoes hydrolysis into glucose and fructose by an enzyme called **invertase** present in yeast.



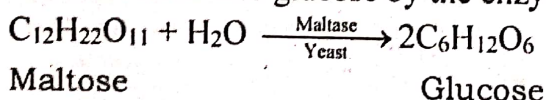
- (iii) Glucose can be converted into alcohol by the enzyme zymase present in the yeast.



- (iv) Starch can be converted into maltose by the enzyme diastase.



- (v) Maltose can be converted into glucose by the enzyme maltase.



TOPIC-8



THERMOCHEMISTRY AND ENERGETICS OF CHEMICAL REACTIONS

COURSE CONTENTS

- System, Surrounding and State function
- Definitions of terms used in thermodynamics
- Standard states and standard enthalpy changes
- Energy in chemical reactions
- First law of thermodynamics
- Sign of ΔH
- Enthalpy of a reaction and its Types
- Hess's law of constant heat summation
- Born-Haber cycle

INTRODUCTION

Thermochemistry

The study of heat changes during a chemical reaction is called thermochemistry.

Energy

"Ability of a body to do work is called energy."

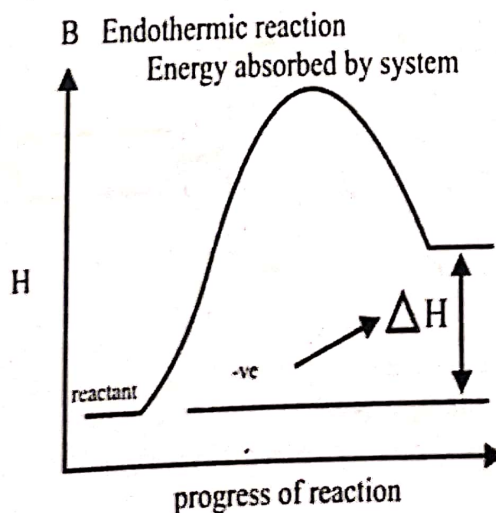
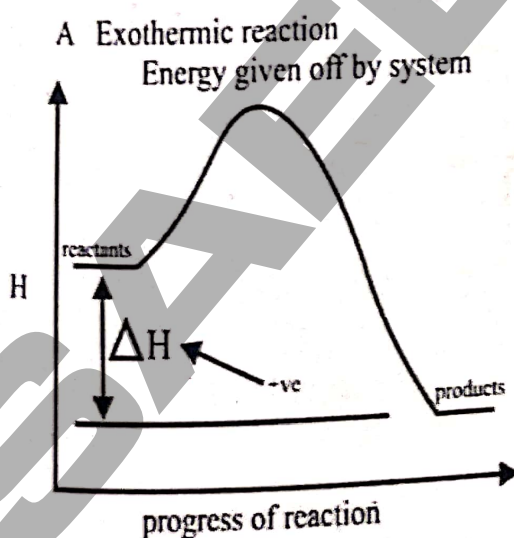
Types of energies

- Kinetic energy (K.E) \rightarrow Energy due to motion
- Potential energy (P.E) \rightarrow Energy due to position, shape and orientation

Units	Relation
Joule (SI Unit)	$J = \text{kgm}^2\text{s}^{-2}$
Calorie	$1 \text{ cal} = 4.184 \text{ J}$

CONCEPT OF ENERGY CHANGES DURING CHEMICAL REACTIONS

Graphical representation of exothermic and endothermic reactions



Sr.	Properties	Exothermic	Endothermic
1	Flow of heat energy	System to surrounding	Surrounding to system
2	Temperature of surrounding	Increases	Decreases
3	Temperature of the system	Decreases	Increases
4	Energy of products	Low	High
5	Energy of reactants	High	Low
6	Strength of bonds in products	Strong	Weak
7	Strength of bonds in reactants	Weak	Strong
8	Enthalpy change (ΔH)	Negative	Positive
9	Examples	Combustion $C + O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 \Delta H = -393.7 \text{ kJ/mol}$ Respiration $C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6O_2 \rightarrow 6CO_2 + 6H_2O$ Neutralization $NaOH + HCl \rightarrow NaCl + H_2O$	Oxidation $N_2 + O_2 \rightarrow 2NO$ $\Delta H = +180.51 \text{ kJ/mol}$ Thermal decomposition $CaCO_3(s) \rightarrow CaO(s) + CO_2(g)$ Dissolving $NH_4Cl(s) \rightarrow NH_4Cl(aq)$

SURROUNDING AND STATE FUNCTION

System

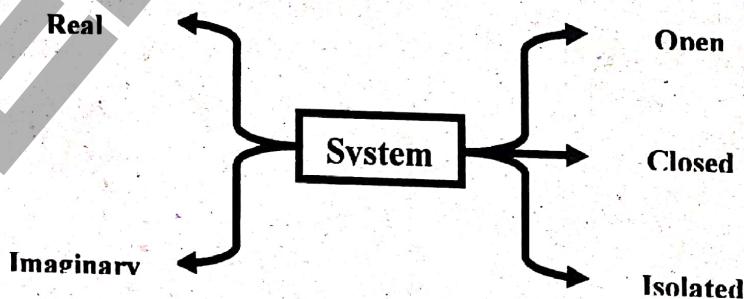
“The portion of universe which is set aside for consideration, observation, discussion, argumentation or experimentation is called system”

OR

“The substance under consideration is called chemical system”

Examples:

- (i) $Pb(NO_3)_2$ under consideration is a system.
- (ii) The liquid whose boiling point is to be measured is a system.



Isolated System

If a system is isolated, then nothing can enter or leave. Its energy and matter remain the same. Any change goes on inside the system, and it remains isolated, we cannot know anything about an isolated system from the outside.

Open System

When both matter and energy can be exchanged, is called open system, when matter is added. In this case the system is open system. For example, when we perform titration.

Closed System

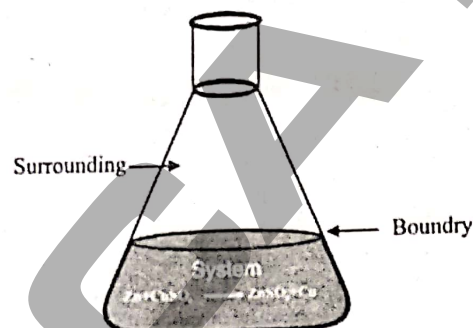
In closed system energy can be exchanged but matter cannot exchanged between system and surrounding, the system is called closed. A bomb calorimeter only allows heat to be exchanged. Such a system is called closed.

Surrounding

The portion of universe except system is called surrounding.

Example:

A chemical reaction happening in a conical flask is a system, while the walls of the conical flask and the atmosphere are its surrounding.

**Boundary**

The real or imaginary surface, separating the system from surrounding is called boundary of a system.

State

The condition of a system is called state of the system.

Examples:

Volume, Temperature, Pressure, Energy etc.

	State	Examples
1	Conditions describing the system before it undergoes a change are called initial states of system.	V_1, T_1, P_1, E_1
2	Conditions describing the system after it undergoes a change are called final states of system.	V_2, T_2, P_2, E_2

Change in the state of system

$$\Delta V = V_2 - V_1 \quad (\text{Change in volume})$$

$$\Delta P = P_2 - P_1 \quad (\text{Change in pressure})$$

$$\Delta G = G_2 - G_1 \quad (\text{Change in free energy})$$

$$\Delta H = H_2 - H_1 \quad (\text{Change in enthalpy})$$

$$\Delta T = T_2 - T_1 \quad (\text{Change in temperature})$$

$$\Delta E = E_2 - E_1 \quad (\text{Change in internal energy})$$

$$\Delta S = S_2 - S_1 \quad (\text{Change in entropy})$$

State function

A macroscopic property of a system which has some definite values for initial and final states, and is independent of the path adopted to bring about a change.

Examples:

Pressure (P), Temperature (T), Volume (V), Internal energy (E) and enthalpy (H) are all state functions.

- Capital symbols are used for state function.
- Heat and work are not state functions.
- Entropy and Gibb's free energy is also a state function.

BOND ENERGY

The average amount of energy required to break all bonds of a particular type in one mole of the substance is called bond energy.

- Unit of bond energy is kJ/mole.

Factors affecting bond energy

The bond energy is the measure of the strength of bond. The strength of a bond depends upon the following factors.

- Electronegativity difference of bonded atoms
- Sizes of the atoms
- Bond length

Applications of bond energy

- Relative strength of bonds
- % of ionic character in bond
- Estimation of ΔH

$$\Delta H_{\text{Bond formation}} = \Delta H_{\text{Reactant}} - \Delta H_{\text{Product}}$$

Average bond energies

- During a chemical reaction, the bonds in the reactants are broken. This is an endothermic process; energy is required to do this.
- After the bonds have been broken, however, the bonds in the products are formed.
- This is an exothermic process; energy is released when this happens.
- The enthalpy change for a chemical reaction can be deduced from consideration of the energy required to break bonds in the reactants and the energy released when the bonds in the products are formed. It can be calculated from the following equation:
 $\Delta H = \text{Energy required to break bonds in reactants} - \text{Energy released to make bonds in products}$
- This method can be used to calculate the enthalpy changes for any reaction which does not involve ionic bonds.
- The breaking and making of ionic bonds involve a more complicated sequence of energetic processes and thus cannot be considered in this way.

INTERNAL ENERGY AND FIRST LAW OF THERMODYNAMICS**INTERNAL ENERGY**

"The sum of potential energy and kinetic energy of a substance is called its internal energy."

OR

"The sum of all the possible kinds of energies of a system is called its internal energy (E)."

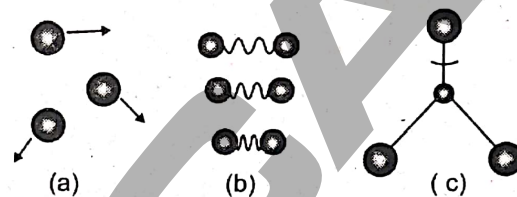
$$E_T = K.E + P.E + \dots\dots\dots$$

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

- By definition standard enthalpy of an element is zero.
- If bond formed is stronger than bond broken, then reaction will be **exothermic**
- If bond formed is weaker than bond broken, then reaction will be **endothermic**

Internal energy is comprised of

- **Kinetic energy**
 - Translational kinetic energy (a) (mono-atomic)
 - Vibrational kinetic energy (b) (di-atomic)
 - Rotational kinetic energy (c) (tetra-atomic)
- **Potential energy**
 - Intra-molecular forces
 - Inter-molecular forces
- **Effect of increase in Internal Energy:**
 - (i) The temperature of the system may increase
 - (ii) A phase change may occur.
 - (iii) A chemical reaction may take place.

**FIRST LAW OF THERMODYNAMICS**

(Law of conservation of energy)

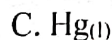
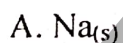
“Energy can neither be created nor be destroyed, but can be changed from one form to another.”

$$\Delta E = q + P\Delta V$$

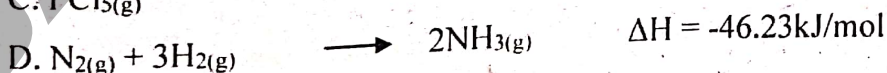
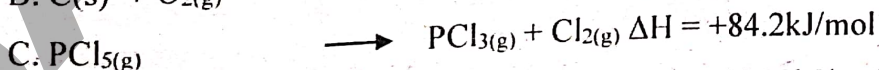
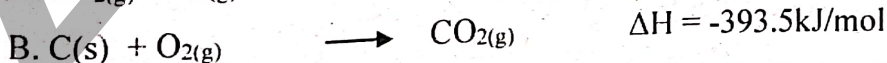
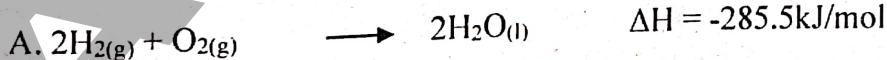
$$\Delta E = q_v$$

CRITICAL THINKING?

Q.1 Which of the following element has non-zero enthalpy?



Q.2 Reaction giving most stable product is



ENTHALPY CHANGE OF REACTION

Enthalpy	Definition	Symbol	Positive or negative
Enthalpy of reaction	The enthalpy change which occurs when the certain number of moles of reactants as indicated by the balanced chemical equation react together completely to give the products under standard condition. $2\text{H}_{2(\text{g})} + \text{O}_{2(\text{g})} \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}_{(\text{l})} \Delta H^\circ = -285.8 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$	ΔH°	May be positive or negative
Enthalpy of formation	The change of enthalpy when one mole of the compound is formed from atoms of its elements. $\text{C}_{(\text{s})} + \text{O}_{2(\text{g})} \rightarrow \text{CO}_{2(\text{g})} \Delta H^\circ_{\text{f}} = -393.7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H^\circ_{\text{f}}$	May be positive or negative
Enthalpy of atomization	The enthalpy change when one mole of gaseous atoms are formed from a molecule or an element under standard conditions. $1/2\text{H}_{2(\text{g})} \rightarrow \text{H}_{(\text{g})} \Delta H^\circ_{\text{at}} = -218 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H^\circ_{\text{at}}$	Always positive
Enthalpy of neutralization	The amount of heat evolved when one mole of hydrogen ions H^+ from an acid react with one mole of hydroxide ions (OH^-) from a base to form one mole of water. Example: The enthalpy of neutralization of sodium hydroxide by hydrochloric acid is $-57.4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ $\text{NaOH} + \text{HCl} \rightarrow \text{NaCl} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \Delta H_{\text{n}} = -57.4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H^\circ_{\text{n}}$	Always negative
Enthalpy of combustion	The enthalpy change when one mole of a substance is completely burnt in excess of oxygen under standard conditions. $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}_{(\text{l})} + 3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{CO}_{2(\text{g})} + 3\text{H}_2\text{O}_{(\text{l})}$ $\Delta H^\circ_{\text{c}} = -1368 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H^\circ_{\text{c}}$	Always negative
Enthalpy of solution	The amount of heat absorbed or evolved when one mole of a substance is dissolved in so much solvent that further dilution results in no detectable heat change. $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}_{(\text{s})} + (\text{aq}) \rightleftharpoons \text{NH}_4\text{Cl}_{(\text{aq})}$ $\Delta H^\circ_{(\text{sol})} = +16.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H^\circ_{\text{sol}}$	May be negative or positive

NOTE: (i) $\Delta H_{\text{n}} = -57.4 \text{ KJ / mole}$ (maximum for strong acids and bases)

(ii) $\Delta H_{\text{n}} > -57.4$ (not possible)

(iii) $\Delta H_{\text{n}} < -57.4$ (when one of the acid or base is stronger and other is weaker)

HEAT OF REACTIONS / NEUTRALIZATION FROM EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

There are two basic methods to measure the enthalpy of reactions

- (i) Glass Calorimeter (ΔH_n and ΔH_s)
- (ii) Bomb Calorimeter (ΔH_c of food and fuel)
- o Theoretical methods for calculation of enthalpy of reaction indirectly
 - (i) Hess's Law for constant heat summation
 - (ii) Born-Haber's cycle

By glass calorimeter

- o Glass calorimeter is used to measure the enthalpy of solution and enthalpy of neutralization.
- o By using following relationship, heat of reaction is calculated.

$$q = m \times s \times \Delta T$$

Where,

m = mass of reactant, Units = 'g' or 'Kg'

s = specific heat capacity of reacting mixture,
Units = $\text{JK}^{-1}\text{g}^{-1}$

ΔT = change in temperature, Units = K

NOTE: In glass calorimeter, pressure remains constant. At constant pressure $q = \Delta H$ Hence ΔH can be determined by using the formula $\Delta H = ms\Delta T$, where "s" is specific heat of reacting mixture

By bomb calorimeter

- o Bomb calorimeter is used to measure enthalpy of combustion and enthalpy of reaction.
- o By using following relationship, heat of reaction is calculated.

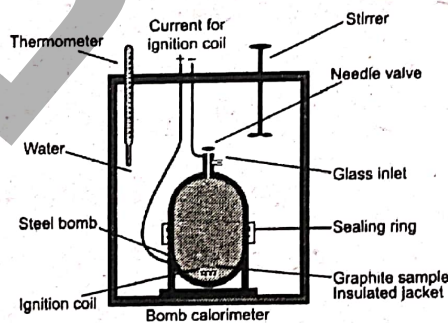
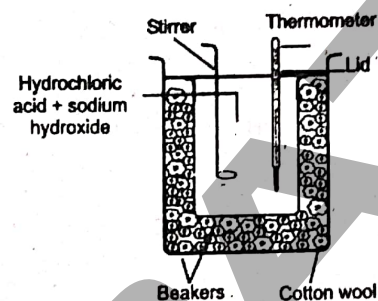
$$q = C \times \Delta T$$

Where,

C = Heat capacity, Units = kJK^{-1}

ΔT = change in temperature, Units = K

NOTE: Volume remains constant in bomb calorimeter.



$$\Delta E = \Delta H = \frac{C\Delta T}{n}$$

HESS'S LAW TO CONSTRUCT SIMPLE ENERGY CYCLES

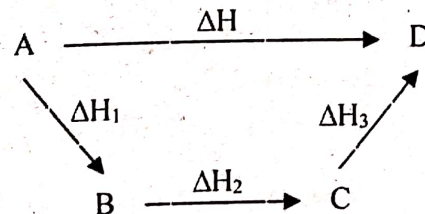
(i) Determining enthalpy changes that cannot be found by direct experiment
Hess's law of constant heat summation

Energy contents of a reaction remain constant whether reaction takes place in single step or many steps.

$$\Delta H = \Delta H_1 + \Delta H_2 + \Delta H_3$$

The sum of enthalpy changes in a cyclic process is zero.

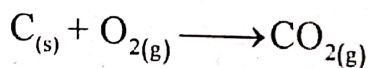
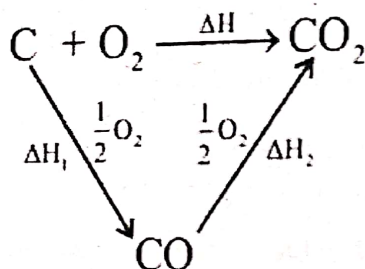
$$\Sigma(\Delta H)_{\text{cycle}} = 0$$



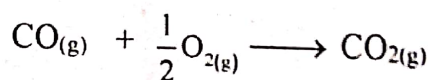
Example:

If the enthalpy of combustion for graphite to form CO_2 and enthalpy of combustion of CO to form CO_2 are known, then by using Hess's law we can determine the enthalpy of formation of CO .

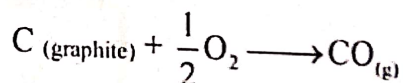
Consider the following cycle.



$$\Delta H_{(\text{for CO}_2 \text{ from graphite})} = -393.7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$



$$\Delta H_2 (\text{for CO}_2 \text{ from CO}) = -283 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$



$$\Delta H_1 (\text{CO}) = ?$$

From cycle, it is clear that

$$\Delta H = \Delta H_1 + \Delta H_2$$

$$\Delta H_1 = \Delta H - \Delta H_2$$

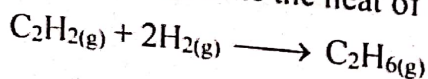
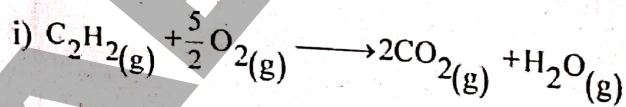
$$= -393.7 - (-283)$$

$$\Delta H_1 = -110.7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

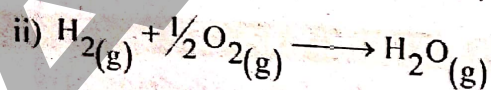
So, the enthalpy change for the formation of $\text{CO}_{(g)}$ is -110 kJ mol^{-1} .

Using Hess's law for numerical problems

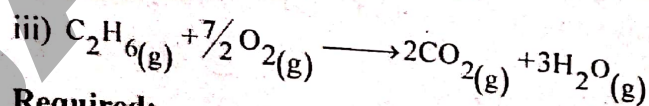
Sample problem: If the heats of combustion of CH_4 , H_2 and C_2H_6 are -337.2 , -68.3 and $-372.8 \text{ k calories}$ respectively, then calculate the heat of the following reaction.

**Given information:**

$$\Delta H = -337.2 \text{ kcal}$$



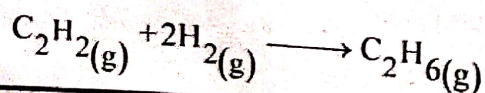
$$\Delta H = -68.3 \text{ kcal}$$



$$\Delta H = -372.8 \text{ kcal}$$

Required:

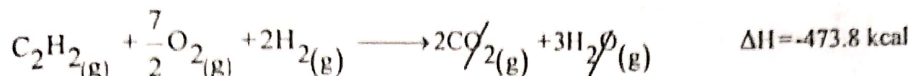
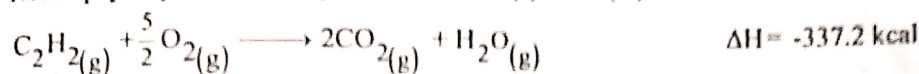
Heat of the following reaction?



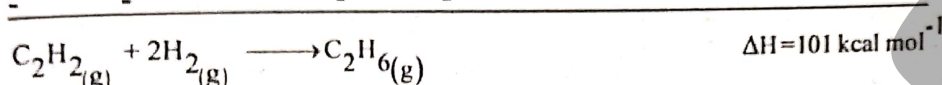
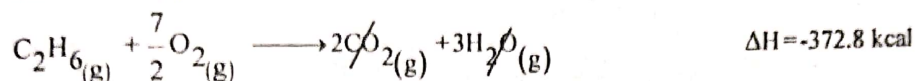
$$\Delta H = ?$$

Solution:

Multiply equation ii) by '2' and add (i) and (ii)



Subtract eq (iii) from above

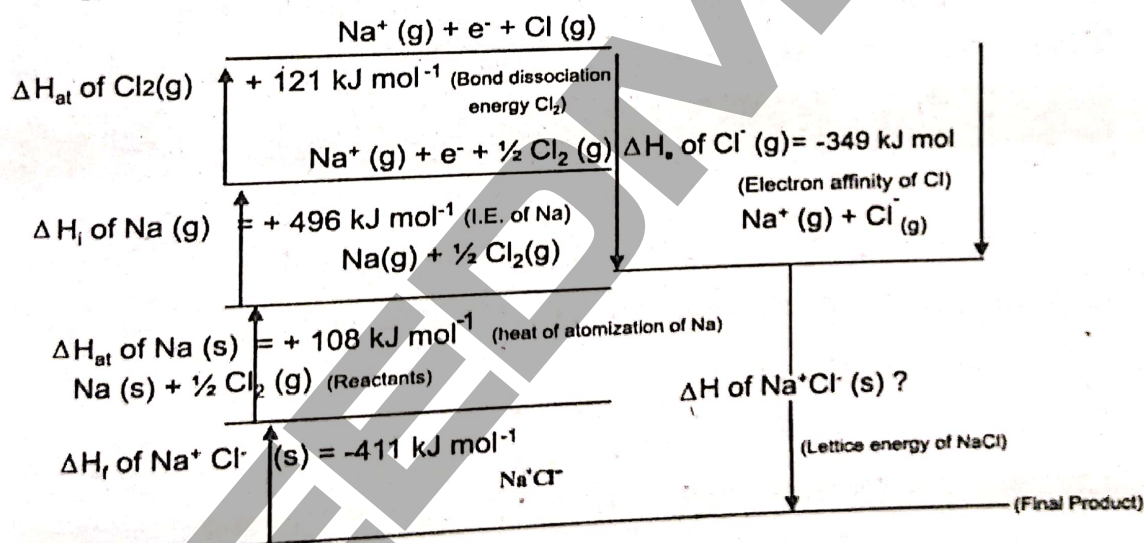


BORN-HABER CYCLE OF NaCl

(Including ionization energy and electron affinity)

Born-Haber cycle

Energy change in cyclic process is always zero. It enables us to calculate the lattice energy of binary compounds (ionic); this is called Born-Haber cycle.



$$\Delta H_{\text{latt}} = \Delta H_f - \Delta H_x$$

$$\Delta H_x = \Delta H_{\text{at(Na)}} + \Delta H_{\text{IE(Na)}} + \Delta H_{\text{at(Cl}_2)} + \Delta H_{\text{E.A(Cl)}}$$

$$\Delta H_x = 108 + 496 + 121 - 349$$

$$\Delta H_x = 376 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$\Delta H_{\text{latt}}^{\circ} = \Delta H_f^{\circ} - \Delta H_x = -411 - 376 \Rightarrow \Delta H_{\text{latt}}^{\circ} = -787 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$



COURSE CONTENTS

- Oxidation number or state
- Explanation of electrolysis (Predict the product)
- Electrode potential (SHE and Cell Potential)
- Balancing of redox equations by ion-electron method
- Balancing of redox equations by oxidation number change method
- Electrochemical series (ECS)

INTRODUCTION

Electrochemistry

It is the branch of chemistry which is concerned with the inter-conversion of chemical energy and electrical energy.

- Electrical energy is converted into chemical energy through electrolytic cells.
- Chemical energy is converted into electrical energy through galvanic or voltaic cells.

Oxidation	Reduction
Gain of oxygen	Loss of oxygen
Loss of hydrogen	Gain of hydrogen
Loss of electrons including anode reactions	Gain of electrons including cathode reactions
Increase in oxidation state	Decrease in oxidation state
$\text{Zn} \rightarrow \text{Zn}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^-$	$\text{Cu}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Cu}$

OXIDATION NUMBERS OF ELEMENTS

Apparent charge on an atom of an element in a molecule or an ion is called oxidation number. It may be positive or negative or zero.

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

Example:



$$(+1)2 + 2\text{Cr} - 2(7) = 0$$

$$+ 2 + 2\text{Cr} - 14 = 0$$

$$2\text{Cr} = +14 - 2 = +12$$

$$\text{Cr} = +6$$

Oxidation number of IA group = (+1)

Oxidation number of II-A group = (+2)

Oxidation number of III-A group = (+3)



$$1 + \text{Br} + (-2)(3) = 0$$

$$1 + \text{Br} - 6 = 0$$

$$\text{Br} - 5 = 0$$

$$\text{Br} = +5$$

Element	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Molecular form o Bulk / chunk 	H_2, S_8 0 Diamond (C) 0
Compound	Covalent compound ▶ Molecular / Bulk / chunk Non-Metal – Non-Metal <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Less electronegative non-metal = +ve o More electronegative non-metal = -ve o Algebraic sum of oxidation numbers = 0 Ionic compound ▶ Metal – Non-Metal Metal = +ve Non-metal = -ve Algebraic sum of oxidation numbers = 0	Molecular HCl $(+1) + (-1) = 0$ Bulk / chunk SiO_2 $[+4 + 2(-2)] = 0$ Ionic compound NaCl $(+1) + (-1) = 0$
Ion	Mono-atomic ion ▶ Oxidation number will be equal to the charge on the ion. Poly-atomic ion ▶ The algebraic sum of oxidation number is equal to charge on that ion.	Mono-atomic ion Cl^{-1} = -1 Poly-atomic ion SO_4^{-2} = $+6 + [-2(4)] = -2$
Hydrogen	Ionic compound ▶ Always -ve oxidation number Covalent compound ▶ Always +ve oxidation number	Ionic compound NaH $(+1) + (-1) = 0$ Covalent compound H_2O $[+1(2)] + (-2) = 0$
Oxygen	With all elements ▶ -2 oxidation number (normal oxides) ▶ -1 oxidation number (per oxides) ▶ -1/2 oxidation state (super oxides) With Fluorine ▶ + 2 oxidation state	H_2O $-1(2) - 2 = 0$ H_2O_2 $(+1)2 + (-1)2 = 0$ KO_2 $[+1 + 2(-1/2)] = 0$ OF_2 $[+2 + 2(-1)] = 0$

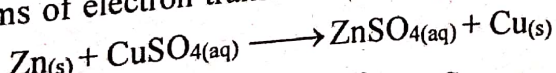
CRITICAL THINKING?

- Q.1 Oxidation number of which element is always negative
A. Fluorine
B. Bromine
C. Chlorine
D. Oxygen
- Q.2 In which of the following compounds oxidation number of "S" is in fraction
A. H_2SO_4
B. H_2S
C. SO_2
D. $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_4\text{O}_6$

REDOX REACTION

Oxidation and reduction always takes place together. There can be no oxidation without reduction and vice versa. This combined process is called Redox Reaction.

Redox process in terms of electron transfer or change in oxidation number explained in following example.

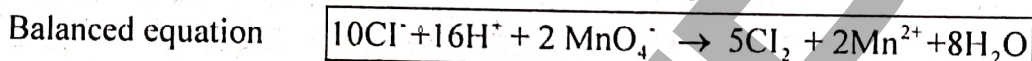
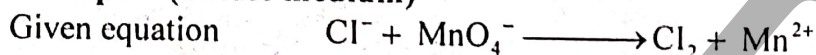


Its ionic equation is $\text{Zn}_{(s)} + \text{Cu}^{+2}_{(aq)} \longrightarrow \text{Zn}^{+2}_{(aq)} + \text{Cu}_{(s)}$

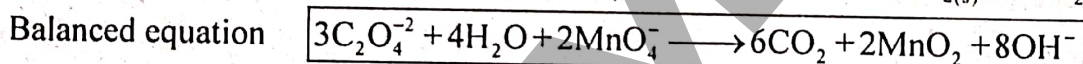
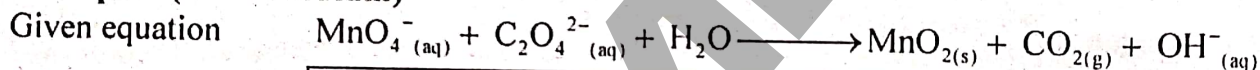
Oxidation	Reduction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> $\text{Zn} \rightarrow \text{Zn}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^-$ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> $\text{Cu}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Cu}$
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Zinc atom has lost two electrons 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Copper ion has accepted two electrons
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Oxidation state of Zinc has increased from 0 to +2 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Oxidation state of Copper has decreased from +2 to 0.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Zinc atom has been oxidized to Zinc ion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Copper ion has been reduced to copper atom
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Zn atom gives its electrons to copper ion to reduce copper ion so Zn atom act as reducing agent (Reductant). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cu ion removes electrons from Zn atom to oxidize Zn atom so Cu ion act as oxidizing agent (Oxidant).

BALANCING OF REDOX EQUATIONS BY ION-ELECTRON METHOD

- Example: (Acidic medium)**



- Example: (Basic medium)**

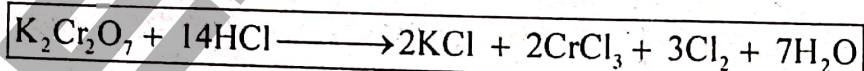
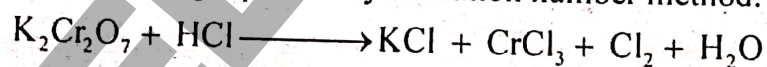


BALANCING OF REDOX EQUATION BY OXIDATION NUMBER METHOD

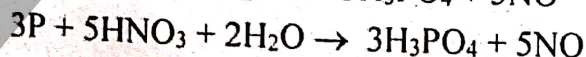
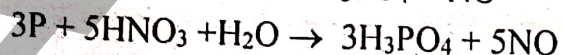
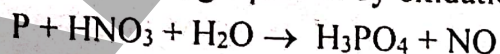
The steps involved can be memorized by following sequence

- ▶ Skeleton equation.
- ▶ Identification of elements whose O.N changed
- ▶ Indication of number of electrons gained or lost
- ▶ Equating the increase or decrease in oxidation number → use suitable multiplier
- ▶ Balancing the rest of equation → by inspection method

- Balance the following equation by oxidation number method.



- Balance the following equation by oxidation number method.



Electrolytic Conduction:

Conduction is of two types.

- Electrolytic conduction
- Electronic or metallic conduction

Electrolytic Conduction:

- The conduction in which current is carried by positively and negatively charged ions in solution or in fused state is called **electrolytic conduction**.
- Chemical change takes place in it.
- It increases with increase in temperature.

Electronic Conduction or Metallic Conduction:

- The conduction of electricity due to **free movement of electrons in the metallic lattice** is called **electronic conduction or metallic conduction**.
- No chemical change takes place in it.
- It decreases with increase in temperature.

Ionization:

The process of splitting of ionic compounds into charged particles when fused or dissolved in water is called ionization.

Electrolysis:

The process in which non – spontaneous reaction takes place at the expense of electricity is called electrolysis.

EXPLANATION OF ELECTROLYSIS

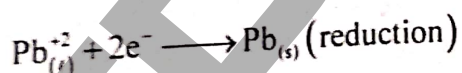
The process of electrolysis is carried out by using aqueous solution of salts or molten salts.

(a) Electrolysis of Fused Salts**i) Reaction at cathode:**

When fused salts are electrolyzed, the metal ions called cations carrying positive charge move towards cathode. Cathode provides electrons to them and they get reduced.

Example:

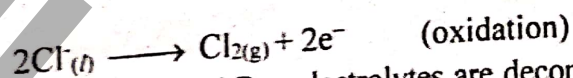
In the case of fused PbCl_2 , Pb^{+2} ions being positively charged move towards cathode and gain electrons.

**ii) Reaction at Anode:**

The anions move towards anode and they lose their electrons at anode and get oxidized.

Example:

In case of PbCl_2 , Cl^- ions being negatively charged move towards anode and lose electrons.



Similarly, for fused NaCl and fused PbBr_2 , electrolytes are decomposed during electrolysis. Na and Pb are produced at cathode while Cl_2 and Br_2 gases are formed at anode.

iii) Flow of Electrons and Ions

In the fused salt there is electrolytic conduction in the cell while there is electronic conduction in the external circuit. In, the cell ions move towards anode and cathode to get oxidized or reduced respectively. The flow of electrons takes place through external circuit from anode to cathode.

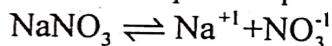
Current is conducted by electrons outside the cell in the external circuit from anode to cathode.
Current is conducted by ions inside the cell from cathode to anode.

(b) Electrolysis of Aqueous Solutions of Salts

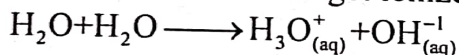
The electrolysis of aqueous solutions of salt is not so simple and is somewhat complicated. The reason is that water molecules are oxidized as well as reduced that is why products of electrolysis of aqueous solutions of salts are not precisely predictable.

Example:

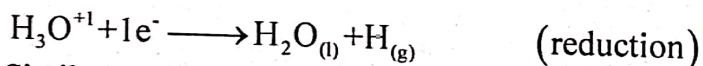
Let us take the example of aqueous solutions of NaNO_3 . It dissociates in water as follows:



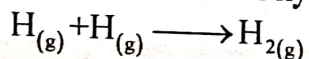
Water molecules also get ionized

**i) Reaction at Cathode:**

H_3O^+ ions being positively charged move towards cathode and get reduced in competition of Na^+ ions.



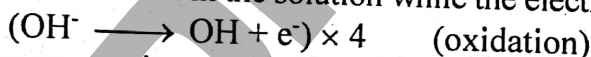
Similarly, one more hydrogen atom is formed. Then both hydrogen atoms react to form hydrogen gas.



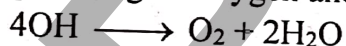
H_2 gas is evolved at cathode. Na^+ ion will remain as such at cathode and does not get reduced because H^+ ion has greater tendency to gain electrons.

ii) Reaction at anode:

At anode, both nitrate and hydroxide ions are present. Hydroxide ions are easier to discharge than nitrate ions. Nitrate ions will remain in the solution while the electrode reaction is as follow.

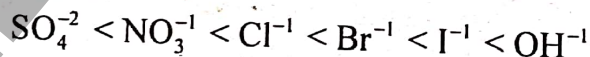


The OH groups decompose to give oxygen and water molecules.



So, oxygen gas is obtained at anode. Na^+ ions and NO_3^- ions will remain in the solution.

Expected order of discharge of ions may also depend upon their **concentration**. If an ion with greater tendency to discharge has low concentration in comparison to ion which has less tendency to discharge itself then ion with greater concentration may get discharged.

Ease of discharging of anions:

Electrolyte	Cathode	Anode
$\text{PbBr}_{2(\text{molten})}$	$\text{Pb}_{(\text{s})}$	$\text{Br}_{2(\text{g})}$
$\text{NaCl}_{(\text{molten})}$	$\text{Na}_{(\text{s})}$	$\text{Cl}_{2(\text{g})}$
$\text{NaCl}_{(\text{aq})}$	$\text{H}_{2(\text{g})}$	$\text{Cl}_{2(\text{g})}$
$\text{CuCl}_{2(\text{aq})}$	$\text{Cu}_{(\text{s})}$	$\text{Cl}_{2(\text{g})}$
$\text{CuSO}_{4(\text{aq})}$	$\text{Cu}_{(\text{s})}$	$\text{O}_{2(\text{g})}$
$\text{KNO}_{3(\text{aq})}$	$\text{H}_{2(\text{g})}$	$\text{O}_{2(\text{g})}$
$\text{NaOH}_{(\text{aq})}$	$\text{H}_{2(\text{g})}$	$\text{O}_{2(\text{g})}$
$\text{H}_2\text{SO}_{4(\text{aq})}$	$\text{H}_{2(\text{g})}$	$\text{O}_{2(\text{g})}$

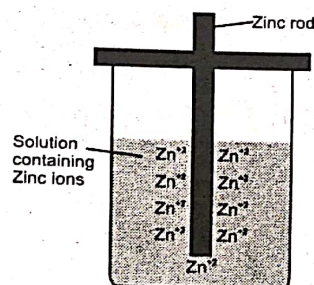
The concentration of H_3O^+ is 10^{-7} moles/ dm^3 in water. When these are discharged, more are formed by dissociation of water molecules to give continuous supply of H_3O^+ .

STANDARD ELECTRODE (REDOX) POTENTIAL**STANDARD ELECTRODE POTENTIAL**

The potential setup when an electrode is in contact with one molar solution of its own ions at 298K is known as **standard electrode potential**. It is represented as E° .

When Zn rod is dipped in the solution of its own ions, then Zn rod will bear an accumulation of negative charge. This is due to greater tendency of Zn atom to lose electrons. The negative charge on the Zn rod will attract an atmosphere of positively charged zinc ions around the rod to form an electrical double layer as shown in figure.

Equilibrium can be represented as $\text{Zn}_{(\text{s})} \rightleftharpoons \text{Zn}^{+2}_{(\text{aq})} + 2\text{e}^-$



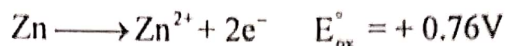
Equilibrium between zinc and its ions in solution

- Electrode potential, of any element, can be calculated by comparing it with standard hydrogen electrode (SHE).

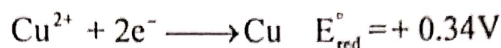
Types of standard electrode potentials

There are two type of standard electrode potentials

- (i) Standard oxidation potential



- (ii) Standard reduction potential

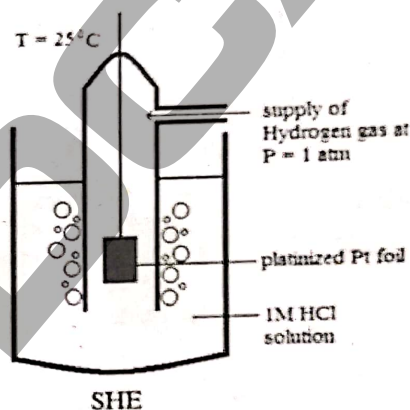


STANDARD HYDROGEN ELECTRODE

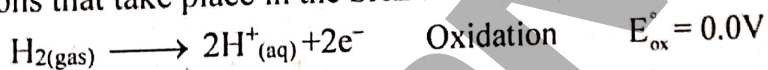
Standard hydrogen electrode (SHE)

SHE consists of

- Glass Tube filled with H_2 gas at 1 atm pressure Pt-foil, coated with finely divided platinum black is suspended in it.
 - The whole system mentioned above is dipped in 1M solution of HCl
 - Electrode Potential of SHE is arbitrarily considered as zero
- Electrode potential, of any element, can be calculated by comparing it with standard hydrogen electrode (SHE).



Reactions that take place in the SHE are



Under standard conditions the e.m.f of S.H.E is defined to be arbitrarily zero volts as its oxidation potential is equal to reduction potential.

So $E_{\text{SHE}}^{\circ} = 0.000\text{V}$

STANDARD CELL POTENTIAL

Electrochemical cells

The cells consisting of electrodes dipped into an electrolyte which make the inter-conversion of electrical energy and chemical energy possible are called electrochemical cells.

Types of electrochemical cells

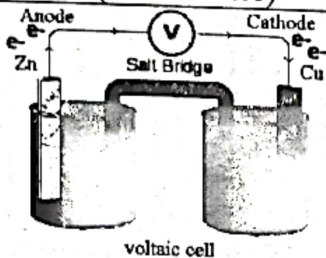
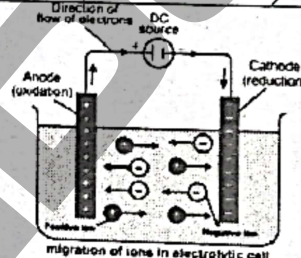
- (i) Electrolytic cell
(ii) Voltaic or galvanic cell

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

In disproportionation reaction, one part of a substance is oxidized and other part is reduced.

CRITICAL THINKING?

- Q3 Which of the following will deposit at anode during electrolysis of $\text{CuSO}_{4(\text{aq})}$
- A. H_2
B. O_2
C. Cu
D. SO_2

Voltaic/Galvanic Cell	Electrolytic Cell
A cell in which redox reaction generates electric current through chemical reaction is called voltaic or galvanic cell.	A cell in which a redox reaction occurs at the expense of electrical energy is called electrolytic cell.
Anode is -vely charged.	Anode is +vely charged
Cathode is +vely charged.	Cathode is -vely charged
Chemical energy \longrightarrow electrical energy	Electrical energy \longrightarrow chemical energy
Reduction reaction and oxidation reaction occur in the separate compartment.	Both reduction reaction and oxidation reaction occur in the same compartment.
Spontaneous redox reaction occurs.	Non-spontaneous redox reaction occurs.
Salt bridge is used.	Salt bridge is not used.
Used for the measurement of electrode potential.	Used for the extraction of metals, purification, electroplating and anodizing.
It generates heat (exothermic)	It consumes heat (endothermic)
 <p>voltaic cell</p>	 <p>migration of ions in electrolytic cell</p>
Daniel's cell, Ni-Cd cell, fuel cell	Nelson's Cell and Down's Cell

Voltaic or galvanic cell

Two half cells are present in voltaic cell

Left half cell (Oxidation half-cell)

Zn – electrode is dipped in 1M solution of ZnSO_4

Right half cell (Reduction half-cell)

Cu – electrode is dipped in 1M solution of CuSO_4

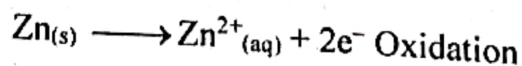
Salt bridge

It is aqueous solution of KCl in a gel

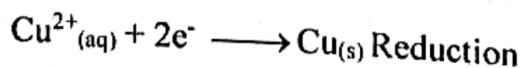
Working

- Connect both the half cells electrolytically through the salt bridge
- Close the external circuit by connecting the Zn and Cu electrodes.
- The electrons will flow from Zn to Cu through external circuit. The following reactions will occur at respective electrodes.

At anode



At cathode



- The voltaic cell reaction is represented by



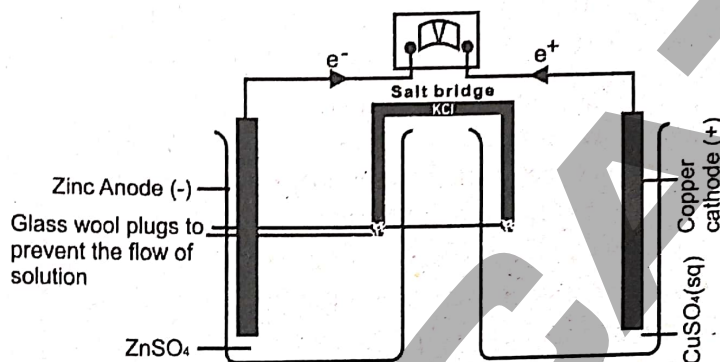
- emf of the cell

$$E^0 = 1.10 \text{ V}$$

Function of salt bridge

- Salt bridge acts as a passage for the transfer of negative ions (SO_4^{2-}) from right half-cell to left half-cell.
- If the exchange of SO_4^{2-} ions is stopped, then the oxidation-reduction reaction will stop due to charge accumulation in both half cells.

Replacing the external circuit by a source of high voltage can reverse the voltaic cell reactions. Such cell is called reversible cell.

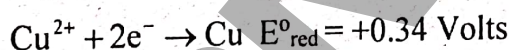
**CALCULATION OF STANDARD CELL POTENTIAL**

- Electrode having higher position in series will act as an anode, oxidation will take place on it
- Electrode having lower position in series, will act as cathode, reduction will take place on it.

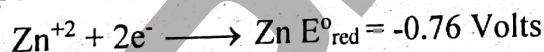
For example in $\text{Cu}_{(\text{aq})}^{+2} + \text{Zn}_{(\text{s})} \longrightarrow \text{Cu}_{(\text{s})} + \text{Zn}_{(\text{aq})}^{+2}$

Zn is at higher position in series so act as anode and oxidation will take place on it and Cu is at lower position in series so act as cathode and reduction will take place on it.

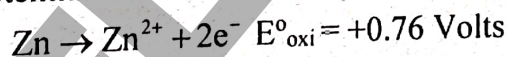
Standard Reduction potential of Cu



Standard Reduction potential of Zn



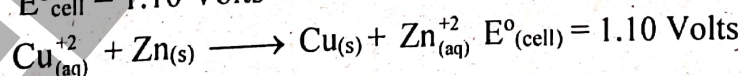
Standard Oxidation potential of Zn



$$E_{\text{cell}}^{\circ} = E_{\text{oxi}}^{\circ} + E_{\text{red}}^{\circ}$$

$$E_{\text{cell}}^{\circ} = +0.76 + (+0.34)$$

$$E_{\text{cell}}^{\circ} = 1.10 \text{ Volts}$$



Standard cell potential of Zn-Cu cell is 1.10 volts.

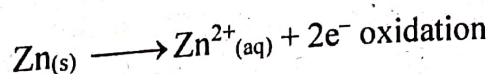
USES OF STANDARD CELL POTENTIAL

- (i) **Explain/deduce the direction of electron flow in the external circuit**

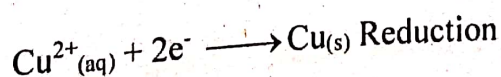
In voltaic cell electrons travel from oxidation half-cell to reduction half-cell externally through voltmeter. So direction of electrons is from anode to cathode.

- The electrons will flow from Zn to Cu through external circuit. The following reactions will occur at respective electrodes.

At anode

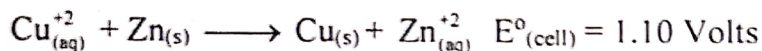


At cathode



(ii) Prediction of the feasibility of a chemical reaction

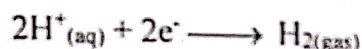
If the sum of E° values of the two half-cell reaction is positive, the reaction is feasible (spontaneous) and if it is negative then the reaction will not be feasible (non-spontaneous).



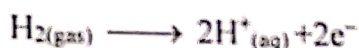
Voltaic cell consist of two half cells.

Methods used to measure the standard electrode potentials of metals

- Concerned electrode is joined with SHE and form a voltaic cell
- Salt bridge is used to connect both cells, filled with solution of KCl
- Voltmeter is attached to measure electrode potential
- Oxidation or reduction reaction occurs at SHE depending on the nature of the concerned electrode.
- When reduction occurs on SHE, voltmeter reading will be +ve.



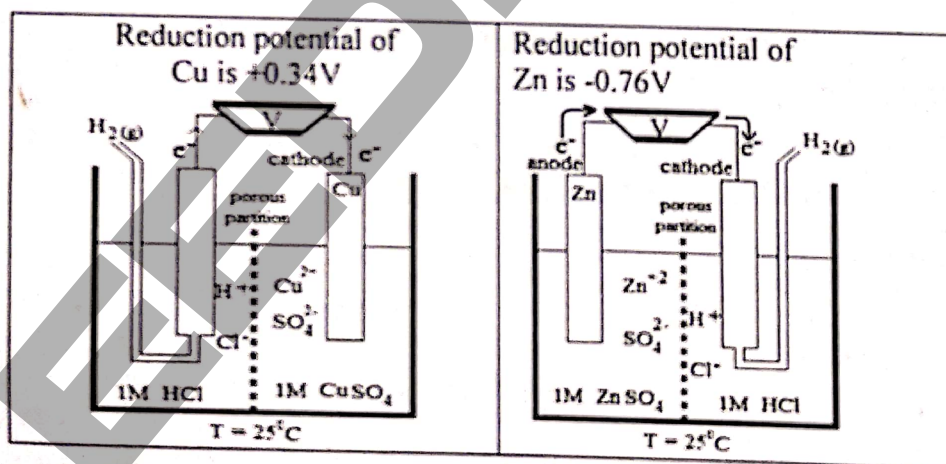
- When oxidation occurs on SHE then voltmeter reading will be in -ve



SHE act as cathode when connected with Zn. Potential of Zn is called oxidation potential that is +0.76V so its reduction potential is -0.76. SHE acts as anode when connected with Cu. Potential of Cu is called reduction potential that is +0.346V so its oxidation potential is -0.34

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

An electrode potential is measured by finding the emf of a cell composed of the electrode and a standard electrode, e.g. the SHE which has $E = 0$, or the calomel electrode.

**CRITICAL THINKING?**

Q.4

Reaction between which two substances is not feasible

- A. $\text{CuSO}_4 + \text{Zn}$
 B. $\text{FeSO}_4 + \text{Zn}$
 C. $\text{ZnSO}_4 + \text{Cu}$
 D. $2\text{HCl} + \text{Ca}$

THE ELECTROCHEMICAL SERIES

When elements are arranged in the order of their increasing standard reduction potentials on the hydrogen scale, the resulting list is known as electrochemical series.

Element	Electrode	Standard Reduction Potential (E°)
Li	$\text{Li}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Li}$	-3.045
K	$\text{K}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{K}$	-2.925
Ca	$\text{Ca}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Ca}$	-2.87
Na	$\text{Na}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Na}$	-2.714
Mg	$\text{Mg}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Mg}$	-2.37
Al	$\text{Al}^{3+} + 3\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Al}$	-1.66
Zn	$\text{Zn}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Zn}$	-0.76
Cr	$\text{Cr}^{3+} + 3\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Cr}$	-0.74
Fe	$\text{Fe}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Fe}$	-0.44
Cd	$\text{Cd}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Cd}$	-0.403
Ni	$\text{Ni}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Ni}$	-0.25
Sn	$\text{Sn}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Sn}$	-0.14
Pb	$\text{Pb}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Pb}$	-0.126
H ₂	$2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2$	0.000
Cu	$\text{Cu}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Cu}$	+0.34
Cu	$\text{Cu}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Cu}$	+0.521
I ₂	$\text{I}_2 + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow 2\text{I}^-$	+0.535
Fe	$\text{Fe}^{3+} + 3\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Fe}$	+0.771
Ag	$\text{Ag}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Ag}$	+0.794
Hg	$\text{Hg}_2^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Hg}$	0.885
Br ₂	$\text{Br}_2 + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow 2\text{Br}^-$	+1.08
Cl ₂	$\text{Cl}_2 + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow 2\text{Cl}^-$	+1.360
Au	$\text{Au}^{3+} + 3\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Au}$	+1.50
F ₂	$\text{F}_2 + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow 2\text{F}^-$	+2.87

Increasing strength as an oxidizing agent
Increasing reduction potentials

Increasing strength as a reducing agent
decreasing reduction potentials

EASY TO RECALL ECS

Little (Li), Kinza (K), Can (Ca), Send (Na), Monkey (Mg),
Elephant (Al), Zebras (Zn), Crows (Cr), In (Fe⁺³), Cubic (Co),
Nickel (Ni), Tin (Sn) Lead (Pb), Hut (H₂)
Cute (Cu⁺²) Cute (Cu⁺¹), Imported (I₂), Iron (Fe⁺²), Silver (Ag),
Hyderabadi (Hg₂⁺²), Bangles (Br₂), Collected (Cl₂), All over (Au),
Finland (F₂)

TOPIC-10 >> CHEMICAL BONDING

COURSE CONTENTS

- Energetic of bond formation
- Atomic size, Ionic radii and covalent radii
- Ionization energy
- Electron affinity and electronegativity
- Bond energy and bond length
- Types of bonds
- Electrovalent or ionic bond
- Covalent bond
- Co-ordinate covalent or dative bond
- The valence shell electron pair repulsion theory
- Postulates and applications of VSEPR theory
- Sigma bond pi bond
- Hybridization (sp^3 , sp^2 , sp)
- Ionic character of covalent bond (Dipole moment)

INTRODUCTION

Chemical bond

- The force which holds two or more atoms or ions to form a large variety of compounds is called chemical bond.

Causes of chemical combination

Atoms of elements combine with each other to stabilize themselves. Two factors are necessary for their satisfaction;

- Every atom tries to attain electronic configuration near to a noble gas. (Wants to follow octet rule). The tendency of atoms to attain a maximum of eight electrons in the valence shell is called octet rule.
- Each atom tries to attain lowest energy state because it is a stable state.

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

Ionization energy is the index of Metallic Character

Low I.E \rightarrow metals, Intermediate I.E \rightarrow metalloids and high I.E \rightarrow nonmetals

ATOMIC SIZES

Particulars	Atomic radii	Ionic radii	Covalent radii
Definition	It is the average distance between the nuclei of an atom and its outermost electronic shell	It is the average distance between the nuclei of an ion and its outermost electronic shell	It is the half of the single bond length between two similar atoms covalently bonded in a molecule
Trend along the period	From left to right, it decreases	From left to right, it decreases	From left to right, it decreases
Trend down the group	Increases from top to bottom	Increases from top to bottom	Increases from top to bottom
Effect of the shielding effect	Greater shielding effect results in larger radii	Greater shielding effect results in larger radii	Greater shielding effect results in larger radii

NOTE: Cationic radius is smaller than parent atom while the anionic radius is larger than the parent atom.

IONIZATION POTENTIAL, ELECTRON AFFINITY AND ELECTRONEGATIVITY

Particular	I.P./E	E.A	E.N
Definition	Energy required to remove an electron from the outer most shell of gaseous atom	Energy released when an electron is added to the outer most shell of gaseous atom	Tendency of an atom to attract a shared pair of electron
First, second and third energies	1 st I.P. is lesser, 2 nd is higher and 3 rd is much higher	1 st E.A. is exothermic while 2 nd and 3 rd E.A. are endothermic.	Not applicable
Trend down the group	Top to bottom decreases	Top to bottom decreases; sometimes energy is absorbed	Generally top to bottom decreases
Trend along the period	Generally left to right increase	Generally left to right increases	Left to right increases
Effect of atomic size	I.P. decreases as atomic size increases	Generally E.A. decreases as atomic size increases	E.N. decreases as atomic size increases
Effect of nuclear charge	Generally high nuclear charge, high value of I.P.	Generally high nuclear charge, high value of E.A.	High nuclear charge, high value of E.N.
Effect of the shielding effect	Greater shielding effect results in lesser I.P. value	Generally greater shielding effect results in lesser E.A. value	Greater shielding effect results in lesser E.N. value

CRITICAL THINKING?

- Q.1 There are four elements with their IE values W = 899 kJ/mol, X = 738 kJ/mol, Y = 590 kJ/mol and Z = 549 kJ/mol are given, which one has highest metallic character
- A. W
B. Y
C. X
D. Z

Exceptional Cases of Ionization energy:

I.E of IIA > IIIA and VA > VIA

TYPES OF BOND

- (i) Electrovalent or ionic bond
- (ii) Covalent bond
- (iii) Co-ordinate covalent or dative bond

ELECTROVALENT OR IONIC BOND**Ionic Bond**

The electrostatic force of attraction between oppositely charged ions is called ionic bond or electrovalent bond.

OR

Ionic bond is formed by the complete transfer of electrons from more electropositive elements to more electronegative elements.

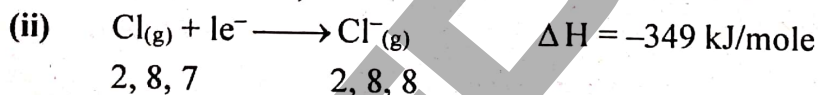
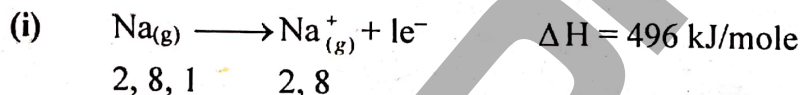
Conditions necessary for ionic bond formation

- o Electropositive elements with low ionization energy like I-A and II-A that lose electron and form cation.
- o Electronegative elements with high electron affinity like VI-A and VII-A that gain electron and form anion.

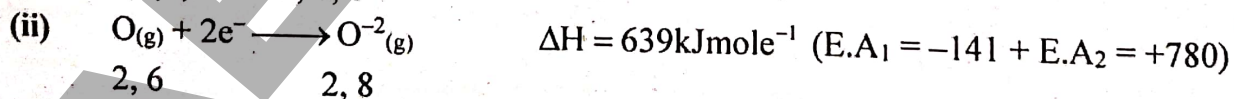
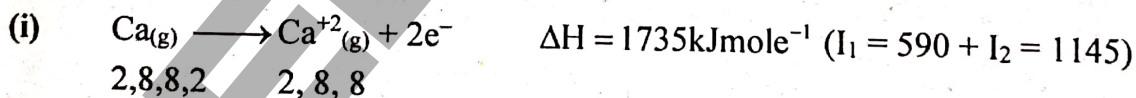
Ionic bond is non-rigid and non-directional.

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

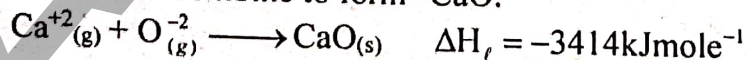
In some ionic compounds there is a degree of sharing of electron clouds between cations and anions.

(1) Formation of NaCl

Then sodium and chloride ions combine to form NaCl.

**(2) Formation of CaO**

Then Ca^{+2} and O^{-2} combine to form CaO.

**CRITICAL THINKING?**

Q.2 Which of the following compound has maximum ionic character?

- A. NaCl
- B. CsCl

- C. NaF
- D. CsF

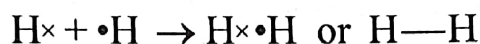
COVALENT BOND

(i) Covalent Bond

A bond formed by mutual sharing of electron between the two atoms is called covalent bond.

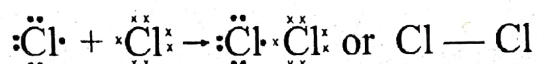
Hydrogen molecule

When two hydrogen atoms share their valence electrons, a covalent bond is formed.

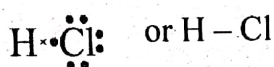


Chlorine molecules

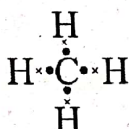
When two chlorine atoms share their valence electrons, a covalent bond is formed.



Hydrogen chloride molecule

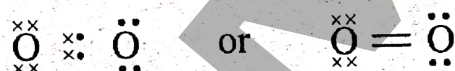


Methane molecule



Oxygen molecules

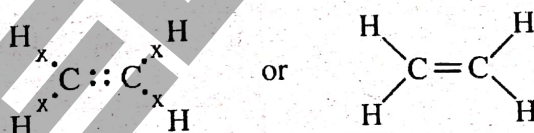
When two oxygen atoms share their valence electrons, a double covalent bond is formed.



Ethene

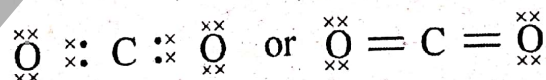
When two carbon atoms share their valence electrons, a double covalent bond is formed.

Each carbon atom makes two bonds separately with two hydrogen atoms.



Carbon dioxide:

Two carbon atoms two bonds with each of the oxygen atoms separately.



NOTE: A bond formed by the sharing of one electron from each of the bonding atoms is called **single covalent bond**. It is represented by (—)

A bond formed by sharing of two electrons from each of the bonding atoms is called **double covalent bond**. It is represented by two dashes (=)

A bond formed by the sharing of three electrons from each of the two bonding atoms is called as **triple covalent bond**. It is represented by three dashes (\equiv).

TYPES OF COVALENT BONDS

Non-polar Covalent Bond	Polar Covalent Bond
A covalent bond between two similar atoms or those having negligible electronegativity difference. 0 – 0.4	A covalent bond between two dissimilar atoms having appreciable electronegativity difference but less than 1.7 and greater than 0.4
The shared pair of electrons is equally attracted by the two bonded nuclei	The shared pair of electron is un- equally attracted by the two bonded nuclei.
Electron cloud is symmetrical around the two nuclei.	Electron cloud is unsymmetrical around the two nuclei.
No partial charges appear on the molecule because of symmetrical electrons cloud.	Partial positive and partial negative charges appear because of unsymmetrical electrons cloud.
No polarity is developed on the molecule.	There is polarity in the molecule.
Compounds having non-polar bonds have weak intermolecular attraction.	Compounds having polar bonds have strong intermolecular attraction usually
Compounds having non-polar bond have low boiling point and melting point with less solubility in water.	Compounds having polar bonds have high melting point and boiling point with high solubility in water.
It is a weak bond	It is a strong bond.
Example: Cl — Cl	Example: $\text{H}^{\delta+} - \text{Cl}^{\delta-}$

PROPERTIES OF IONIC COMPOUNDS AND COVALENT COMPOUNDS

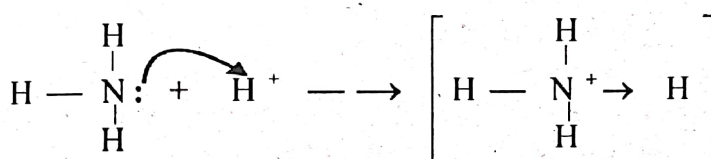
No.	Properties	Ionic Compounds	Covalent Compounds
1	Conductivity	Conduction of electricity Non-conductor in solid state. Conductor in fused or aqueous state.	Non-conductor but electrolytic solutions are conductor
2	Thermodynamic properties	High melting point	Low melting point and boiling point
3	Alignment	The bond is non-directional and non-rigid.	The bond is directional and rigid
4	Crystalline properties	Show polymorphism and isomorphism.	Show isomerism
5	Reaction rate	Rate of reaction is very high	Rate of reaction is low
6	Solubility	Soluble in polar solvents.	Like dissolve like

CO-ORDINATE COVALENT BOND (DATIVE BOND)

- A covalent bond formed by the donation of an electron-pair by one of the bonded atoms to other is called Co-ordinate covalent bond or dative or Donor-acceptor bond.
- Co-ordinate covalent bond is formed by overlapping of one completely filled orbital with one empty orbital.
- An atom that donates an electron pair is called donor atom (Lewis base) and one that accepts an electron pair is called acceptor (Lewis acid).
- This bond is represented by an arrow pointing from donor to acceptor.

Ammonium ion formation

- Nitrogen in NH_3 donates its lone pair to H^+ to form Co-ordinate covalent bond and to give $^+\text{NH}_4$ (Ammonium ion). In ammonium ion all the bonds behave alike with 25% coordinate covalent and 75% covalent character.

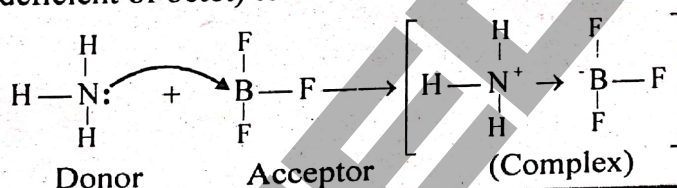


Ammonium ion

Similarly, N-atom in primary (RNH_2) secondary (R_2NH) & tertiary amines (R_3N) form this bond with H^+ .

Dative bonding between NH_3 and BF_3

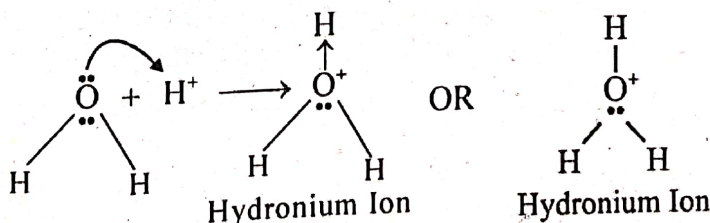
Nitrogen atom in $\ddot{\text{N}}\text{H}_3$ have lone pair and it donates it to Boron in BF_3 (which is electron deficient of octet) to form a co-ordinate covalent bond.



In this case donor develops a positive charge and acceptor gets negative charge.

Hydronium ion formation

Oxygen in water donates a lone pair to form co-ordinate covalent bond to give H_3O^+ . After this bond formation, distinction between covalent and Co-ordinate covalent bond vanishes i.e. all the bonds behave alike with 33% co-ordinate covalent and 66% covalent character.



CRITICAL CONCEPT!

In Co-ordinate covalent formation

- If both donor and acceptor are neutral, before the bond formation, then donor will get positive charge and acceptor will get negative charge after the bond formation.
- If donor is negatively charged and acceptor is positively charged before bond formation, then both will become neutral after bond formation.

CRITICAL THINKING ?

Q.3 Which of the following has maximum number of bonding electrons?

A. O₂B. CO₂C. NH₃D. H₂OQ.4 Which sub-shell of B accept the electron pair from NH₃[NH₃ → BF₃]

A. 1s

B. 2s

C. 2p

D. 3p

VALENCE SHELL ELECTRON PAIR REPULSION THEORY (VSEPR THEORY)

"The valence electron pairs (lone pairs and the bond pairs) are arranged around the central atom to remain at a maximum distance apart to keep repulsion at a minimum."

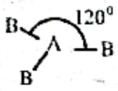
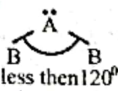
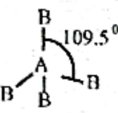
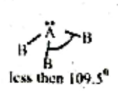
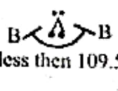
Lone Pair is not involved in determining the shape of the molecules. The acronym "VSEPR" is pronounced "vesper"

Introduced by Sidgwick and Powell and Nyholm and Gillespie

Postulates:

- Both lone pair and bond pair determine the geometry of the molecules
- Lone pair occupies more space than a bond pair
- The magnitude of repulsion is in the following order
- Lone pair – Lone pair > Lone pair – Bond pair > Bond pair – Bond pair
- Multiple bonds behave like a single bond in determining the geometry of the molecule.

NOTE: Lone pairs are closer to the nucleus than bonding pairs and exert a greater repulsive force.

Type	Electron Pairs			Arrangement of electron pairs	Molecular geometry	Shape	Examples
	Total	Bonding	Lone				
AB ₂	2	2	0	Linear	Linear	B–A–B	BeCl ₂ , HgCl ₂ , CO ₂
AB ₃	3	3	0	Trigonal planar	Trigonal planar	 120°	BH ₃ , BF ₃ , AlCl ₃ , SO ₃
		2	1		Bent (or angular)	 less than 120°	SnCl ₂ , SO ₂
AB ₄	4	4	0	Tetrahedral	Tetrahedral	 109.5°	CH ₄ , SiCl ₄ , CCl ₄ , BF ₄ ⁻ , NH ₄ ⁺ , SO ₄ ⁻²
		3	1		Trigonal pyramidal	 less than 109.5°	NH ₃ , NF ₃ , PH ₃
		2	2		Bent (or angular)	 less than 109.5°	H ₂ O, H ₂ S

Limitations

- VSEPR theory predicts and explains the shapes of molecules but does not give reasons for the formation of bonds.
- It is not applicable for single bond pair system means di-atomic molecules.
- Complexes do not follow this theory.

SIGMA AND PI BOND (VALANCE BOND THEORY)

Postulates of VBT:

- Over-lapping is a necessary condition for bond formation.
- Only half filled orbitals participate in overlapping during covalent bond formation.
- Greater the overlapping, stronger is the bond formed.
- Electrons with opposite spin pair up to stabilize themselves during bond formation (overlapping).

Sigma (σ) bond: A bond formed by head to head (end to end) overlapping where the probability of finding the shared pair around the line joining the two nuclei is maximum is called as sigma bond.

Pi (π) bond: A bond formed by the parallel overlapping where the probability of finding shared pair above and below the line joining the two nuclei is maximum is called pi bond.

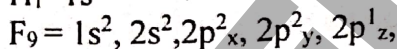
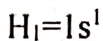
π -bond is a weaker bond than sigma bond.

H₂-molecule

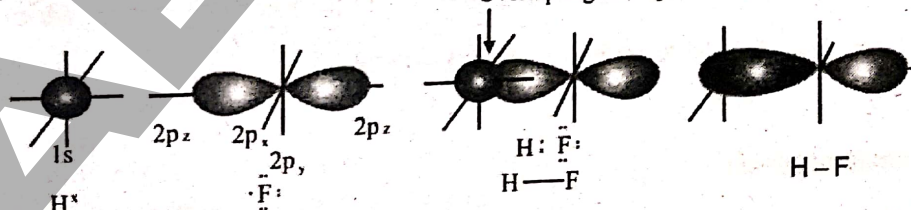
When two hydrogen atoms approach each other, their half-filled 1s orbital undergo overlapping to form a sigma bond. One electron from each of 1s form a pair called shared/bond pair.

**HF molecule**

The electronic configuration of both atoms are

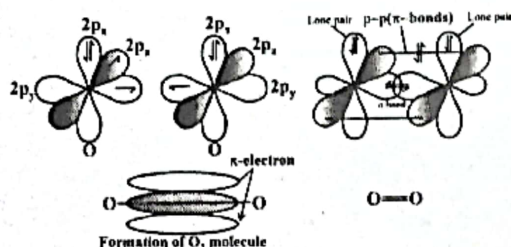


The two half-filled orbitals (1s from H-atom and 2p_z from F-atom) undergo linear overlap and form a sigma bond. The two unpaired electrons with opposite spin paired up.

**O₂ molecule**

The electronic configuration of oxygen atoms is $O_8 = 1s^2, 2s^2, 2p_x^2, 2p_y^1, 2p_z^1$.

Each oxygen atom has two partially filled p-orbitals i.e. p_y and p_z. One p_x orbital from each of the two oxygen atoms undergo linear overlapping to form a sigma bond. Whereas, two p_z orbitals from each oxygen atom undergo parallel overlapping to form a pi-bond.

COMPARISON BETWEEN σ -BOND AND π -BOND

Sigma bond	Pi bond
A bond formed by linear overlapping of two half filled atomic orbitals of adjacent atoms is called a sigma bond.	A bond formed by the sidewise overlapping of two half filled parallel atomic orbitals of adjacent atoms is called a pi bond.
Electron density is concentrated around the bond axis.	Electron density lies above and below the bond axis.
It has only one lobe of electron density between the nuclei.	It has two lobes of electron density on opposite sides of bond axis.
Only one sigma bond can exist between two atoms.	One or more pi bonds can exist between two atoms.
It offers free rotation about the bond axis	It offers no free rotation about the bond axis.
It has no nodal plane.	It has a nodal plane along the bond axis.
The sigma bonds present in the molecule determine its shape.	Pi bond has no effect on the shape of the molecule.

ATOMIC ORBITAL HYBRIDIZATION

Hybridization

A process in which atomic orbitals of different energies and shapes are mixed together to form a new set of equivalent orbitals of the same energy and same shape is called hybridization

- Hybridization is a process of mixing of orbitals in a single atom (or ion).
- Only orbitals of comparable (relatively close) energies can be mixed to form hybrid orbitals.
- The number of hybrid orbitals is always equal to the number of orbitals which are mixed.
- Once an orbital has been used to form hybrid orbitals, it is no longer available for the electrons.

Hybrid atomic orbitals

The atomic orbitals of same energy, which have been formed due to mixing of different orbitals of different energies, are called the hybrid atomic orbitals.

TYPES OF HYBRIDIZATION

In Hydrocarbons

Particular	sp^3	sp^2	sp
Definition	Mixing of one-s and three p-atomic orbitals	Mixing of one-s and two p-atomic orbitals	Mixing of one-s and one p-atomic orbitals
Geometry	Tetrahedral	Trigonal planar	Linear
Percentage s & p character	25% s and 75% p	33.3% s and 66.7% p	50% s and 50% p

Structure of hydrocarbons on basis of hybridization

Structure	Number of bonds	Hybridization	Bond angle	Sigma bonds	Pi bonds
$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} $	7	sp^3	109.5°	7	0
$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \quad \text{H} \\ \diagdown \quad \diagup \\ \text{C} = \text{C} \\ \diagup \quad \diagdown \\ \text{H} \quad \quad \text{H} \end{array} $	6	sp^2	120°	5	1
$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C} \equiv \text{C}-\text{H} \end{array} $	5	sp	180°	3	2

BOND ENERGY, BOND LENGTH

Bond energy

The average amount of energy required to break all bonds of a particular type in one mole of the substance is called bond energy.

- Unit of bond energy is kJ/mole.

Factors Effecting Bond Energy

The bond energy is the measure of the strength of bond. The strength of a bond depends upon the following factors.

- Electronegativity difference of bonded atoms
- Sizes of the atoms
- Bond length
- Nature of orbital

Applications of bond energy

- Relative strength of bonds
- % of ionic character in bond
- Estimation of ΔH (Difference of bond breaking and bond forming energies)

Bond	Bond energy (kJmol ⁻¹)	Bond	Bond energy (kJmol ⁻¹)	Bond	Bond energy (kJmol ⁻¹)
C — C	348	H — F	567	F — F	155
C = C	614	H — Cl	431	Cl — Cl	242
C ≡ C	839	H — Br	366	N ≡ N	941
C — H	413	H — I	299	Br — Br	193
H — H	436	O = O	495	I — I	151

Bond Length

- The distance between the nuclei of two atoms forming a covalent bond is called bond length.
- Techniques used to determine bond length are electron diffraction, X-ray diffraction or spectral studies.
 - Greater the E.N difference between bonded atoms, shorter will be bond length.
 - Ionic character shortens bond length.
 - Greater the atomic radii of the bonded atoms larger will be the bond length.
 - Involvement of π -bond reduces bond length.
 - Greater s-character in the hybrid orbital lower will be the bond length
 - Along the period, bond length decreases.
 - Down the group, bond length increases.

Compound	Bond	Bond length (pm)	Compound	Bond	Bond length (pm)
BF ₃ (sp ² hybridized)	B-F	130	C ₂ H ₆ (sp ³ hybridized)	C-C	154
BCl ₃ (sp ² hybridized)	B-Cl	175	C ₂ H ₄ (sp ² hybridized)	C=C	133
SiH ₄ (sp ³ hybridized)	Si-H	148	C ₂ H ₂ (sp hybridized)	C≡C	120
SiF ₄ (sp ³ hybridized)	Si-F	155	(CH ₃) ₂ C=O (sp ² hybridized)	C=O	122

DIPOLE MOMENT

"The product of electric charge and the distance between two opposite charged centres is called the dipole moment". It is a vector quantity.

Formula:

The mathematical form is, $\mu = q \times r$

Where μ = dipole moment,

q = charge,

r = distance between the center of charges

Unit:

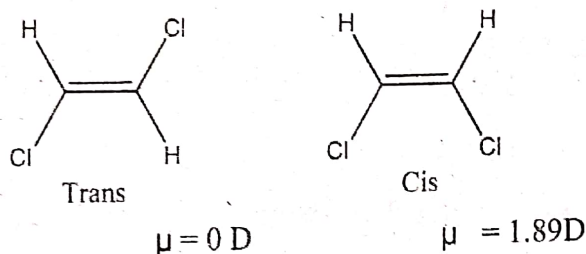
Its unit is mC (SI unit) or Debye (D). $1D = 3.336 \times 10^{-30} \text{ mC}$

Applications:

Determination of polarity of molecule:

Molecules which have zero dipole moment are non-polar whereas molecules which have some dipole moment are polar. For example benzene has zero dipole moment, so it is non polar. But chlorobenzene has dipole moment of 1.54D, so it is polar.

The study of dipole moment also finds applications in stereochemistry. For example, dipole moments of isomer 1,2-dichloroethene have been calculated are given below:



Thus knowing the dipole moment of the given sample of 1,2-dichloroethene, one can predict whether it is Cis or the Trans isomer.

Calculation of %age ionic character in a bond:

It is used to find the %age ionic character in a compound by the following formula.

$$\% \text{age ionic character} = \frac{\mu_{(\text{obs})}}{\mu_{(\text{ionic})}} \times 100$$

Relation between molecular geometry and dipole moment

Formula	Dipole Moment	Molecular Geometry	Examples
AX	May be zero	Linear	H ₂ , O ₂ , Cl ₂
	May not zero		CO, HCl
AX ₂	Zero	Linear	BeCl ₂ , HgCl ₂ , CO ₂
	Can be non-zero	Bent	SnCl ₂ , SO ₂
AX ₃	Zero	Trigonal planar	BH ₃ , BF ₃ , AlCl ₃ , SO ₃
	Can be non-zero	Trigonal pyramidal	NH ₃ , NF ₃ , PH ₃
AX ₄	Zero	Tetrahedral	CH ₄ , SiCl ₄ , CCl ₄
	Zero	Square planar	[Cu(NH ₃) ₄] ⁺²
AX ₅	Zero	Trigonal bipyramidal	PCl ₅ , PF ₅ , [Fe(CO) ₅]
AX ₆	Zero	Octahedral	SF ₆ , [Co(NH ₃) ₆] ⁺³

Electronegativity difference and nature of bond

(i) If electronegativity difference between two atoms is zero or ≤ 0.4 then bond will be non-polar covalent bond

(ii) If electronegativity difference between two atoms is greater than 0.4 and less than 1.7 then bond will be polar covalent bond

(iii) If electronegativity difference is equal to 1.7 then 50% ionic and 50% covalent character

(iv) If electronegativity difference is greater than 1.7 then bond will be ionic

NOTE: Electronegativity difference in H – F is 1.9 but it is polar covalent bond

TOPIC-11 s AND p BLOCK ELEMENTS

COURSE CONTENTS

- Electronic configuration
- Chemical properties of s-Block elements
- Group-1 Elements (Alkali metals)
- Atomic and physical properties
- Trends in reactivity
- Group-2 Elements (Alkaline Earth Metals)
- Trends in reactivity
- Chemical and physical properties
- Group Trends (Atomic & Ionic Radii, Ionization energy electron affinity melting and boiling points, Electrical conductivity and Electronegativity)
- Reaction of Group III-A Elements (With Water, Oxygen and Chlorine)

INTRODUCTION

Modern periodic law (Moseley)

The physical and chemical properties of elements are the periodic function of their atomic numbers.

Periodicity

The repetition of properties after regular intervals is called periodicity

THINGS TO REMEMBER

Periodic Table	Elements arranged in order of increasing proton number
Group Number	Number of electrons in outermost shell (valence electrons)
Period Number	Number of shells of electrons
Valence Electron	Electron in outermost shell
Metals	Elements with 1-3 valence electrons except boron
Non-metals	Elements with 4-7 valence electrons
Inert gases	Elements with full outermost-shell

Periods

- The horizontal rows of elements in the periodic table are called periods.
- All elements in a period have same number of shells.
- There are seven periods in the periodic table that are known by Arabic numerals 1 to 7.

Sr. No.	Peculiarity	Sub-groups present	No. of elements	s-block elements	p-block elements	d-block elements	f-block elements
1	Shortest	A	2	2	0	0	0
2	Short	A	8	2	6	0	0
3	Short	A	8	2	6	0	0
4	Long	A and B	18	2	6	10	0
5	Long	A and B	18	2	6	10	0
6	Longest	A and B	32	2	6	10	14
7	Incomplete	A and B	26	2	-	10	14

- ▶ Lithium and Beryllium in the second period resemble in most of their properties with Sodium and Magnesium in the third period respectively.
- ▶ Boron in the second period and Aluminium in the third period have same oxidation state of +3.
- ▶ Fluorine in the second period has close resemblance with Chlorine in the third period.

s-Block Elements:

The elements in which s-orbital is under the process of filling or has filled are called s-block elements. It may also be defined as the valence electrons in these elements occupy the "s" orbital.

Example:

For example, the elements of IA (alkali metals) and IIA (alkaline earth metals) groups constitute the "s" block of the periodic table. s-Block elements consist of only metals.

p-Block Elements:

The elements in which p-orbital is under the process of filling or has filled are called p-block elements. It may also be defined as these elements have outer electronic configuration of ns^2np^{1-6} .

Example:

For example, elements of Group IIIA, IVA, VA, VIA, VIIA (halogens) and VIIIA (noble gases or zero group) are known as p-block elements. p-Block elements include both metals and non-metals.

VARIATION IN THE PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF ELEMENTS BELONGING TO PERIOD 2 AND 3

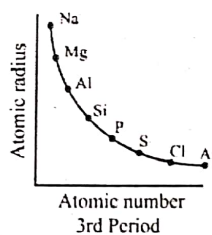
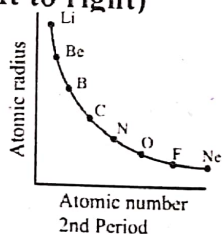
Property	Definition	Trend in a group (down the group)	Responsible Factors.	Trend along a period (from left to right)
Atomic radius	Half of the distance between the centers of two adjacent atoms of any element.	Increases	Nuclear charge and number of shells	Decreases
Ionic radius	Distance between the center of an ion and the outer boundary of its electron cloud.	(for similar charged ions) increases	Nuclear charge and number of shells.	Decreases for iso-electronic +ve and -ve ions.
Melting and boiling points	Specific temperature at which an element changes to liquid or gaseous state.	In case of IA and IIA decreases and for VIIA increases	Number of valence electrons.	I-A to IV-A increases V to VIII decreases
Ionization energy	Minimum quantity of energy, which is required to remove an electron from the outer most shell of its isolated, gaseous atom in its ground state.	Decreases	Nuclear charge, atomic size and shielding effect.	Increases
Electronegativity	The tendency of an atom to attract a shared electron pair towards it self	Decreases	I.E and E.A of bonded atoms The structure of the atom and the number and kind of atoms with which it may combine.	Increases
Electron affinity	Energy released or absorbed, when an electron is added to a gaseous atom to form a negative ion.	Decreases	Size of atom, nuclear charge and vacancies in valence shell.	Increases
Metallic character	Tendency to lose electron and form cations and basic oxides.	Increases	Atomic size and nuclear charge.	Decreases
Electrical conductance	Ability to conduct electricity.	(increases for IA and IIA) no regular trend for transition metals	Lose electrons in outer shell	Decreases

The most E.N element in the periodic table is fluorine. On Pauling scale its value is 4.00 with no unit

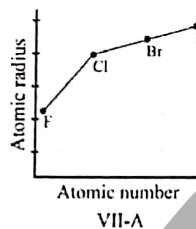
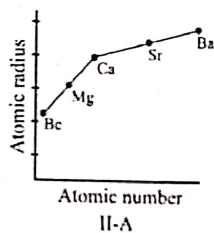
GRAPHS FOR VARIOUS TRENDS IN PERIODIC TABLE

(i) Atomic radius

Along the period (left to right)

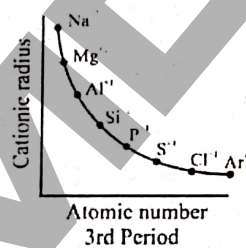
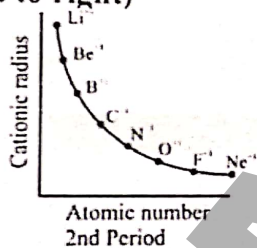


Down the group

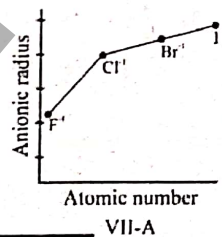
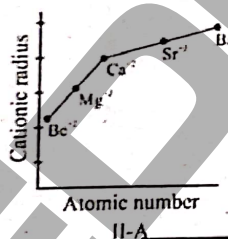


(ii) Ionic radius

Along the period (left to right)

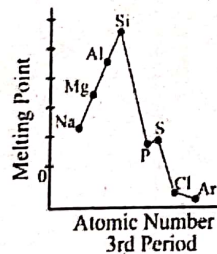
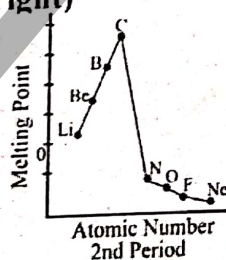


Down the group

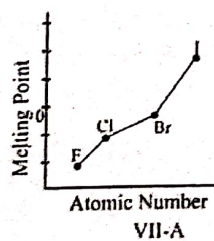
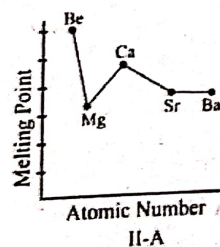


(iii) Melting point

Along the period (left to right)

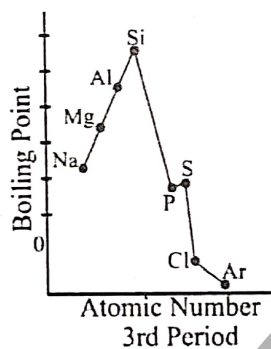
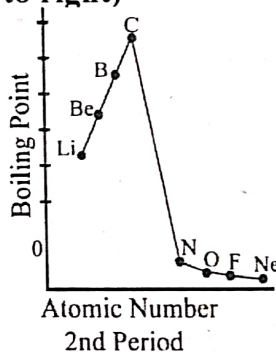


Down the group

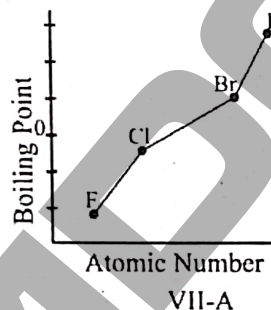
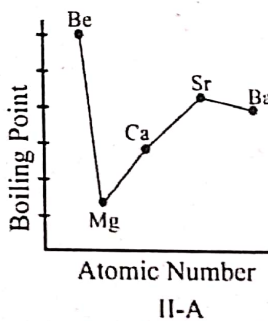


(iv) Boiling point

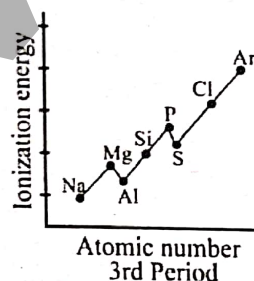
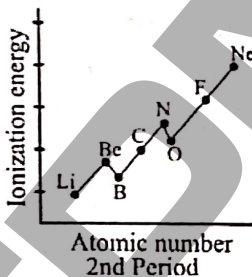
Along the period (left to right)



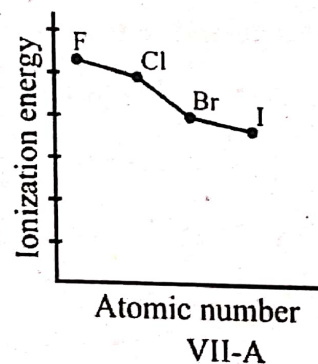
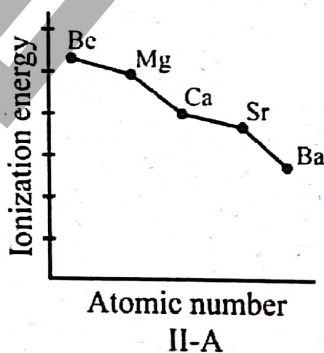
Down the group

**(v) Ionization energy**

Along the period (left to right)



Down the group



MODERN PERIODIC TABLE OF THE ELEMENTS

Atomic Number		New proposal of IUPAC → 134 ← Old proposal of IUPAC		Atomic Mass	
1	H 1.00794	2	He 4.00260	3	Li 6.941
4	Be 9.01218	5	B 10.811	6	C 12.011
7	N 14.0063	8	O 15.9994	9	F 18.9984
10	Ne 20.180	11	Na 22.9898	12	Mg 24.3050
13	Al 26.9815	14	Si 28.0855	15	P 30.9738
16	S 32.066	17	Cl 35.4522	18	Ar 39.948
19	K 39.0938	20	Ca 40.078	21	Sc 44.9559
22	Ti 47.88	23	V 50.9415	24	Cr 51.9961
25	Mn 54.9380	26	Fe 55.847	27	Co 58.9332
28	Ni 58.69	29	Cu 63.546	30	Zn 65.39
31	Ga 69.723	32	Ge 72.59	33	As 74.9216
34	Se 78.96	35	Br 79.904	36	Kr 83.80
37	Rb 85.4678	38	Sr 87.62	39	Y 88.9059
40	Zr 91.224	41	Nb 92.9064	42	Mo 95.94
43	Tc (98)	44	Ru 101.07	45	Rh 102.906
46	Pd 106.42	47	Ag 107.868	48	Cd 112.411
49	In 114.82	50	Sn 118.710	51	Sb 121.75
52	Te 127.60	53	I 126.905	54	Xe 131.29
55	Cs 132.905	56	Ba 137.327	57	*La 138.906
58	Ce 140.12	59	Pr 140.908	60	Nd 144.24
61	Pm (145)	62	Sm 150.36	63	Eu 151.965
64	Gd 157.25	65	Tb 158.925	66	Dy 162.50
67	Ho 164.930	68	Er 167.26	69	Tm 168.934
70	Yb 173.04	71	Lu 174.967	72	Hf 178.49
73	Ta 180.948	74	W 183.85	75	Re 186.207
76	Os 190.2	77	Ir 192.22	78	Pt 195.08
79	Au 196.967	80	Hg 200.59	81	Tl 204.39
82	Pb 207.2	83	Bi 208.980	84	Po (209)
85	At (210)	86	Rn (222)	87	Fr (223)
88	Ra 226.02	89	+Ac 227.02	90	Th 232.038
91	Pa 231.036	92	U 238.029	93	Np 237.048
94	Pu 244	95	Am 245	96	Cm 246
97	Bk 247	98	Cf 251	99	Es 252
100	Fm 257	101	Md 258	102	No 259
103	Lr 260	104	Lr 260	105	Lr 260

***Lanthanide series:**

÷ Actinide series:

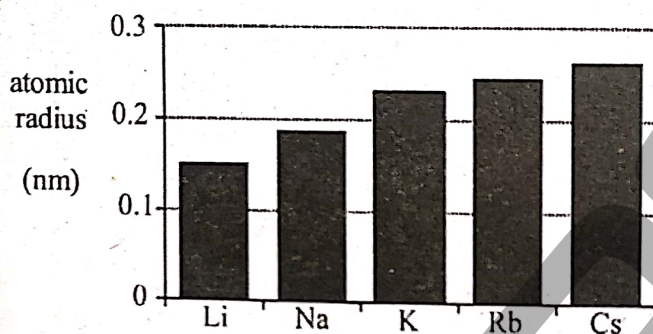
GROUP-IA ELEMENTS (ALKALI METALS)

Atomic and Physical Properties of the Group 1 Elements (Alkali Metals):

This section explores the trends in some atomic and physical properties of the Group 1 elements - lithium, sodium, potassium, rubidium and caesium.

Trends in Atomic Radius:

As we move from lithium to caesium, an extra shell of electrons is added to each element. The addition of an extra shell increases the atomic volume and hence atomic and ionic radii (of M^+ ions).

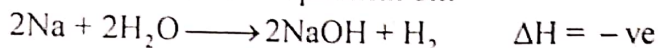


Some physical properties of alkali metals

Property	Li	Na	K	Rb	Cs
Atomic weight	6.94	22.99	39.1	85.47	132.91
Atomic volume	12.97	23.63	45.36	55.8	69.95
Atomic (i.e metallic radius for coordination number 12	1.55	1.9	2.35	2.46	2.6
Covalent radius	1.23	1.54	2.03	2.16	2.36
Ionic radius of M^+ ions	0.6	0.95	1.33	1.48	1.69
Melting point	180.5	97.8	63.7	38.9	28.7
Boiling point	1330	892	760	688	670
Ionization energies (kJ/mol) (I_1)	520.3	495.8	418.9	403.0	375.7
I_2	7298.1	4562.4	3051.4	2633.0	2230.0
Standard oxidation potential	3.04	2.71	2.925	2.99	3.03
Sublimation energy (eV/ion)	1.7472	1.2432	1.032	0.984	0.9024
Hydration energy (kJmol ⁻¹)	505	475	384	345	310
Electronegativity	1	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7
Color of the flame	Crimson red	Golden yellow	Violet	Reddish violet	Blue
Heat of atomization at 25°C (eV/atm)	1.7472	1.2432	1.032	0.984	0.9024
Ionic conduction of M^+ ion	33.5	43.5	64.6	67.5	63

REACTIONS OF GROUP-1A ELEMENTS WITH WATER

- The reaction of alkali metals with water is highly exothermic.
- A small piece of Li, Na and K floats on water.
- They react vigorously and liberate metal hydroxide and hydrogen gas. These reactions are highly exothermic.
- The energy which is produced can burn the hydrogen gas. It is for this reason that alkali metals are stored in kerosene or paraffin oil.



- The reactivity of alkali metals with water becomes more and more vigorous as we move down the group.
- K, Rb and Cs are so reactive with water that they react with ice at -100°C .

REACTIONS OF GROUP-1A WITH OXYGEN**Reactions with Oxygen:**

This topic mainly looks at the reactions of the Group-1A elements (lithium, sodium, potassium, rubidium and cesium) with oxygen-including the simple reactions of the various kinds of oxides formed.

Reaction with Air or Oxygen:

Alkali metals react with O_2 or air rapidly and thus get tarnished due to the formation of their oxide on the surface of the metals. It is for this reason that alkali metals are stored in kerosene or paraffin oil.

- Li when burnt in O_2 gives mainly lithium monoxide, (normal oxide) Li_2O .



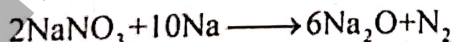
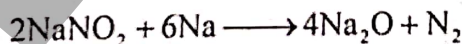
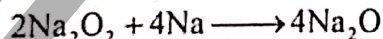
- Na when burnt in O_2 forms sodium peroxide, Na_2O_2 .



- Other alkali metals react with O_2 to form super oxide of MO_2 type.



Normal oxides of alkali metals other than that of Li (Li_2O) are not formed by the direct reaction between the metals and O_2 they are formed by indirect methods, e.g. by reducing peroxides, nitrite and nitrates with the metals itself.

**REACTIONS OF THE ALKALI METALS WITH CHLORINE**

- Alkali metals react with halogens (chlorine) to give halides (chlorides).
- Li and Na react slowly with chlorine at room temperature to give LiCl and NaCl .
- Molten Na burns with a brilliant yellow flame in the atmosphere of chlorine to form NaCl .



K, Rb and Cs react vigorously with all the halogens to form metal halides,

Flame Tests

Flame test is an analytical procedure used to detect the presence of certain metal ions, based on each element's characteristic emission spectrum.

Procedure:

- Clean a platinum or nichrome (a nickel-chromium alloy) wire by dipping it into concentrated hydrochloric acid and then holding it in a hot Bunsen flame.
- Repeat this until the wire doesn't produce any colour in the flame.
- When the wire is clean, moisten it again with some of the acid and then dip it into a small amount of the solid you are testing so that some sticks to the wire.
- Place the wire back in the flame again.
- If the flame colour is weak, it is often worthwhile to dip the wire back in the acid again and put it back into the flame as if you were cleaning it. You often get a very short but intense flash of colour by doing that.

Different colours shown by different elements are given below:

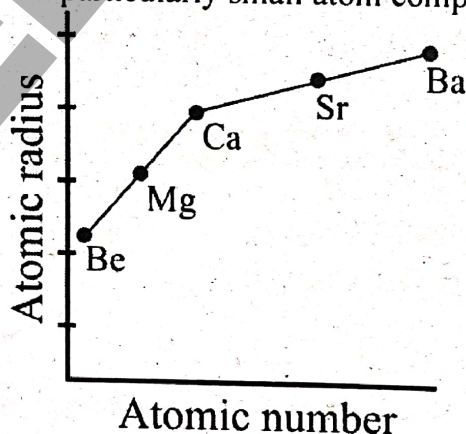
Elements	Flame colour	Elements	Flame colour
Li	Crimson red	Ca	Brick-red
Na	Golden yellow	Sr	Crimson Red
K	Violet	Ba	Pale green / grassy green
Rb	Red (reddish-violet)	Cu	blue-green (often with white flashes)
Cs	Blue	Pb	Greyish-white

The Origin of Flame Colours:

The loosely held outer electron (i.e. ns^1 electron) of atoms of alkali metals can be easily excited to the higher energy levels even by a small amount of heat energy (e.g. by heating the metals or their salts into Bunsen burner). During the excitation process the electron absorbs some energy and when this excited electron comes back to its original position, it gives out absorbed energy in the form of light in visible region of the electromagnetic spectrum and hence the colour is imparted by the atoms to the flame. Since the amount of energy absorbed during the excitation process is different in different atoms, different colours are imparted by the atoms to the flame.

GROUP -IIA ELEMENTS (ALKALINE EARTH METALS)**Trends in Atomic Radius:**

The atomic radius increases as you go down the Group due to the addition of extra shells. Notice that beryllium has a particularly small atom compared with the rest of the Group.



II-A

Trend in atomic radius of Group 2 elements

Reason:

Because of the addition of an extra shell of electrons to each element from Be to Ra, the atomic volume increases from Be to Ra.

- With the increases of atomic volume, the atomic and ionic radii (of M^{2+} ions) also increase from Be to Ra.
- The atomic radii of these elements are however, smaller than those of alkali metals in the same period. This is due to the fact that the alkaline earth metals have higher nuclear charge which tends to draw the orbit electrons towards the nucleus.
- The smaller values of atomic radii result in that the alkaline earth metals are harder, have higher densities and higher melting points than alkali metals.

Some physical properties of alkaline earth metals

Property	Be	Mg	Ca	Sr	Ba	Ra
Atomic weight	9.01	24.31	40.08	87.62	137.34	226
Abundance (%)	6.4x10.4	2.0	3.45	0.915	0.040	1.3x10.10
Density (gm/cc)	1.84	1.74	1.55	2.54	3.75	6.00
Melting point (°C)	1277	650	838	763	714	700
Boiling point (°C)	2770	1107	1440	1380	1610	-
Atomic volume (c.c)	4.90	13.97	25.9	34.54	63.7	38.0
Atomic (i.e metallic radius for coordination number 12 (Å°))	1.12	1.60	1.97	2.15	2.22	-
Covalent radius (Å°)	0.90	1.36	1.74	1.91	1.98	-
Ionic (crystal radius of M^{2+} ion for Coordination number 6 ((Å°))	0.31	0.65	0.99	1.13	1.35	1.40
Ionizations energies (KJ/mole I_1)	899.5	737.7	829.8	547.5	502.9	509.4
2 nd ionization energy I_2	1757.1	1450.7	1145.4	1064.3	965.2	979.06
1 st + 2 nd ionization energy	2656.6	2188.4	1735.2	1613.8	1468.1	1488.46
Oxidation state	+2	+2	+2	+2	+2	+2
Electronegativity	1.5	1.2	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9
Flame colouration	None	None	Brick red	Crimson	Apple green	Red
Oxidation potentials (volts) for $M(s)$	1.70	1.37	2.87	2.89	2.90	2.92
$M(s) \rightarrow M^{2+}(aq) + 2e$						
Heat of atomization at 25 °C and 1 atm pressure (kJ/mole)	327.26	146.89	181.21	-	-	-
	2385.45	1925.1	1653.07	1458.67	1276.42	-

REACTION OF GROUP -IIA ELEMENTS WITH WATER

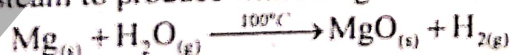
Group 2 elements: beryllium, magnesium, calcium, strontium and barium react with water (or steam). It uses these reactions to explore the trend in reactivity in Group 2.

Beryllium

Beryllium has no reaction with water or steam even at red heat.

Magnesium

Magnesium burns in steam to produce white magnesium oxide and hydrogen gas.



Very clean magnesium ribbon has a very slight reaction with cold water. After several minutes, some bubbles of hydrogen form on its surface, and the coil of magnesium ribbon usually floats to the surface. However, the reaction soon stops because the magnesium hydroxide formed is almost insoluble in water and forms a barrier on the magnesium preventing further reaction.

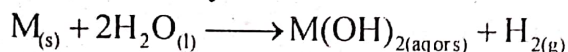


Calcium, Strontium and Barium

These all react with cold water with increasing vigour to give the metal hydroxide and hydrogen.

- Strontium and barium have reactivities similar to lithium in Group 1 of the Periodic Table.
- Calcium, for example, reacts fairly vigorously with cold water in an exothermic reaction. Bubbles of hydrogen gas are given off, and a white precipitate (of calcium hydroxide) is formed, together with an alkaline solution (also of calcium hydroxide - calcium hydroxide is slightly soluble).

The equation for the reactions of any of these metals would be:



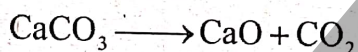
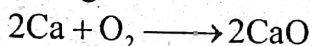
REACTION OF GROUP -IIA ELEMENTS WITH OXYGEN

Reactions of the Group 2 Elements With Air Or Oxygen:

Formation of Simple Oxides:

Preparation:

The alkaline earth metals form the normal oxides of MO type which are obtained by heating the metal in O₂ or by heating their carbonates at high temperature e.g.



Properties:

Physical state:

These oxides are extremely stable white crystalline solids due to their high crystal lattice energy.

Solubility:

BeO and MgO are quite insoluble in H₂O while CaO, SrO and BaO react with H₂O to give soluble hydroxides, M(OH)₂ which are strong bases.



Basicity:

BeO is not at all basic in nature; in fact it is amphoteric since it reacts with acids to form salts and with alkalis to give beryllates.



The oxides of other metals are basic in character. Their basic character increases on moving down the group.

Chemical nature:

Due to small size Be²⁺ ion, BeO is covalent while other oxide are ionic.

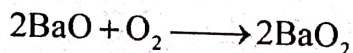
High Melting point and Boiling point of BeO:

Although BeO is covalent yet it has a higher melting point and is harder than the oxides of other metals as it is polymeric. Each Be atom is tetrahedrally coordinated by four oxygen atoms.

Peroxides:

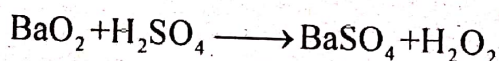
Preparation:

The peroxides of heavier metals (Ca, Sr, Ba etc.) can be obtained on heating the normal oxides with O₂ at high temperature.



Properties:

The peroxides are white, ionic solids having peroxide anion, [O-O]²⁻. They react with acids to produce H₂O₂.

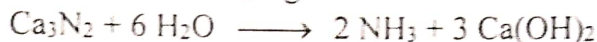


REACTION OF GROUP -IIA ELEMENTS WITH NITROGEN

All the elements burn in nitrogen to form nitrides, M_3N_2 e.g.



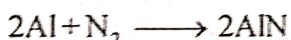
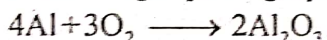
These react with H_2O to liberate NH_3 e.g.



Be_3N_2 is volatile while other nitrides are not so.

REACTIONS OF GROUP III-A (ALUMINIUM ONLY)**Reaction with Air**

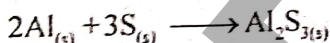
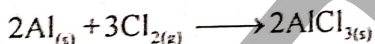
- When a piece of aluminum sheet is exposed to moist air, it acquires a thin, continuous coating of aluminum oxide, which prevents further attack on the metal by atmospheric oxygen and water under normal conditions. Because of this, aluminum sheets are said to be corrosion free.
- However, if the aluminum powder is heated to 800°C and above, the metal will react with air to form aluminum oxide, Al_2O_3 , and aluminum nitride, AlN . The reaction is accompanied by the evolution of heat and intense white light. This property of aluminum is made use of in flash light photography.



Because of its ability to combine with both oxygen and nitrogen, the metal is often used to remove air bubbles from molten metals. Salt solutions corrode aluminum badly, so aluminium and aluminium alloys are not suitable for marine use.

Reaction with Non-Metals

Heated aluminium combines with the halogens, sulphur, nitrogen, phosphorus and carbon, accompanied by the evolution of heat.



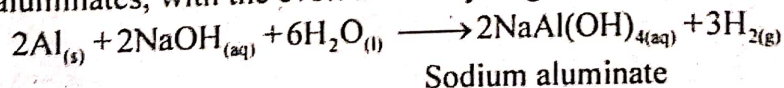
Aluminum on heating with hydrogen forms aluminium hydride.

**Reaction with Acids and Alkalies**

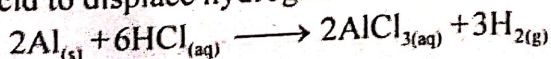
- Aluminium is amphoteric. It dissolves in both acids and bases with the liberation of hydrogen gas.

Reaction with alkali:

Aluminium dissolves in both sodium and potassium hydroxides to form a soluble aluminates, with the evolution of hydrogen.

**Reaction with acids:**

Aluminium reacts slowly with dilute acid and more rapidly with concentrated hydrochloric acid to displace hydrogen.



TOPIC-12 TRANSITION ELEMENTS

COURSE CONTENTS

- General characteristics
- Describe electronic structure of elements and ions of d-block elements
 - (a) Electronic configuration
 - (b) Variable oxidation states
 - (c) Uses as a catalyst
 - (d) Formation of complexes
 - (e) Colour of transition metal complexes
 - (f) Magnetic behaviour, Alloy formation, Binding Energy
 - (g) Complexes important terminologies Nomenclature

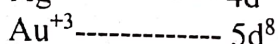
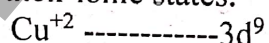
INTRODUCTION

Transition Elements:

“The elements which have partially filled d or f-orbital either in their atomic states or in other common oxidation states are called transition elements.” They are called d-block or f-block elements.

Typical and non-typical transition elements

- Elements of group II-B (Zn, Cd and Hg), III-B (Sc, Y and La) are non-typical transition elements.
- Coinage metals (Cu, Ag and Au) are considered as transition elements as their d-orbitals are in process of completion in their ionic states.



- d-Block elements are called outer transition elements while f-block elements are called inner transition elements.

Series of transition elements

The d-block elements consist of following three series of ten elements each:

- **3d-series:** from Scandium (Sc = 21) to Zinc (Zn = 30)
- **4d-series:** from Yttrium (Y = 39) to Cadmium (Cd = 48)
- **5d-series:** from Lanthanum (La = 57) to Mercury (Hg = 80)

The f-block elements constitute two series which are:

- **4f-series** from Cerium (Ce = 58) to Lutetium (Lu = 71)
- **5f-series** from Actinium (Ac = 89) to Lawrencium (Lr = 103) which are called actinides.

General outermost configurations:

- First series (d-block elements) = $(n-1)d^{1-10}ns^2$
- Second series (f-block elements) = $(n-1)d^1(n-2)f^{1-14}ns^2$

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

- **Metals:**
They are all metallic in nature.
- **Catalyst:**
Some of the transition elements play an important role in the industry. These metals are Ti, Cr, Fe, Ni, Cu, Mo, W, Zr, Nb, Ta and Th etc.
- **Hard and conductor:**
They are all hard and strong metal with high melting and boiling points. They are good conductors of heat and electricity.
- **Alloys:**
They form alloys with one another and other elements of periodic table as well.
- **Variable oxidation state:**
With a few exceptions, they show variable oxidation states.
- **Coloured compounds:**
Their ions and compounds are colored in the solid state and the solution state.

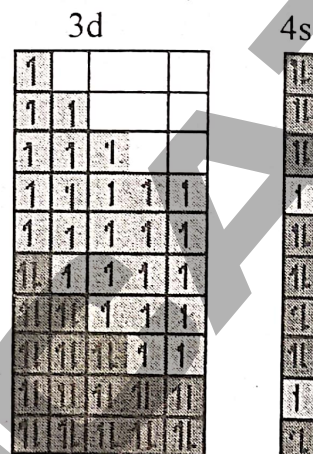
ELECTRONIC CONFIGURATION

- Transition elements may be defined as those elements which have partially filled 'd' or 'f' sub shells in atomic state or in any of their commonly occurring oxidation states.
- d-Block elements are known as outer transition elements while f-Block elements are also known as inner transition elements.
- Transition elements usually show variable oxidation states, coloured compounds and form complex compounds

3d-block elements		4d-block elements		5d-block elements	
Elements	Electronic Configuration	Elements	Electronic Configuration	Elements	Electronic Configuration
Sc (21)	[Ar]3d ¹ 4s ²	Y (39)	[Kr]4d ¹ 5s ²	La (57)	[Xe]5d ¹ 6s ²
Ti (22)	[Ar]3d ² 4s ²	Zr (40)	[Kr]4d ² 5s ²	Hf (72)	[Xe]4f ¹⁴ 5d ² 6s ²
V (23)	[Ar]3d ³ 4s ²	Nb (41)	[Kr]4d ⁴ 5s ¹	Ta (73)	[Xe]4f ¹⁴ 5d ³ 6s ²
Cr (24)	[Ar]3d ⁵ 4s ¹	Mo (42)	[Kr]4d ⁵ 5s ¹	W (74)	[Xe]4f ¹⁴ 5d ⁴ 6s ²
Mn (25)	[Ar]3d ⁵ 4s ²	Tc (43)	[Kr]4d ⁵ 5s ²	Re (75)	[Xe]4f ¹⁴ 5d ⁵ 6s ²
Fe (26)	[Ar]3d ⁶ 4s ²	Ru (44)	[Kr]4d ⁷ 5s ¹	Os (76)	[Xe]4f ¹⁴ 5d ⁶ 5s ²
Co (27)	[Ar]3d ⁷ 4s ²	Rh (45)	[Kr]4d ⁸ 5s ¹	Ir (77)	[Xe]4f ¹⁴ 5d ⁷ 6s ²
Ni (28)	[Ar]3d ⁸ 4s ²	Pd (46)	[Kr]4d ¹⁰ 5s ⁰	Pt (78)	[Xe]4f ¹⁴ 5d ⁹ 6s ¹
Cu (29)	[Ar]3d ¹⁰ 4s ¹	Ag (47)	[Kr]4d ¹⁰ 5s ¹	Au (79)	[Xe]4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6s ¹
Zn (30)	[Ar]3d ¹⁰ 4s ²	Cd (48)	[Kr]4d ¹⁰ 5s ²	Hg (80)	[Xe]4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6s ²

Electronic configuration of 3d-series elements:

3d – series elements	
Elements	Electronic Configuration
Sc (21)	[Ar] 3d ¹ 4s ²
Ti (22)	[Ar] 3d ² 4s ²
V (23)	[Ar] 3d ³ 4s ²
Cr (24)	[Ar] 3d ⁵ 4s ¹
Mn (25)	[Ar] 3d ⁵ 4s ²
Fe (26)	[Ar] 3d ⁶ 4s ²
Co (27)	[Ar] 3d ⁷ 4s ²
Ni (28)	[Ar] 3d ⁸ 4s ²
Cu (29)	[Ar] 3d ¹⁰ 4s ¹
Zn (30)	[Ar] 3d ¹⁰ 4s ²



VARIABLE OXIDATION STATES

- Transition elements are electropositive, so they have positive oxidation states.
- All 3d series elements show an oxidation state of +2 in addition to higher oxidation states when the electrons of 4s-orbital take part in bonding.

Transition elements show variable oxidation states.

The reason is that they have d-electrons in addition to s-electron for bond formation. These elements have several (n-1) d and ns electrons. The energies of (n-1) d and ns orbitals are very close to each other. The d-electrons are as easily lost as ns electrons lost as ns electrons.

- In the highest oxidation states of first five elements, all s and d-electrons are used for bonding.
- Among the 3d series, Mn has maximum oxidation states, and goes up to +7
- The oxidation numbers +2 and +3 are more common.
- Positive oxidation states increase up to the middle of series and after that they decrease. It is because the number of unpaired electrons increases up to the middle and then decreases.

Element	Electronic Configuration	Oxidation State
Sc - 21	[Ar] 3d ¹ 4s ²	+3
Ti - 22	[Ar] 3d ² 4s ²	+2, +3, +4
V - 23	[Ar] 3d ³ 4s ²	+2, +3, +4, +5
Cr - 24	[Ar] 3d ⁵ 4s ¹	+2, +3, +4, +5, +6
Mn - 25	[Ar] 3d ⁵ 4s ²	+1, +2, +3, +4, +5, +6, +7
Fe - 26	[Ar] 3d ⁶ 4s ²	+1, +2, +3, +4, +6
Co - 27	[Ar] 3d ⁷ 4s ²	+2, +3, +4
Ni - 28	[Ar] 3d ⁸ 4s ²	+2, +3, +4
Cu - 29	[Ar] 3d ¹⁰ 4s ¹	+1, +2, +3
Zn - 30	[Ar] 3d ¹⁰ 4s ²	+2

CATALYTIC ACTIVITY

Most of the transition elements are used as catalysts. The compounds of transition metals are also catalysts.

Reason:

- The reason is that the transition metals show variety of oxidation states. In this way, they can form intermediate products with various reactants.
- They also form interstitial compounds which can absorb an activator to the reacting species.

Examples:

Some of the important examples of catalysts are as follows:

- A mixture of ZnO and Cr₂O₃ is used for the manufacture of methyl alcohol.
- Ni, Pt and Pd are catalysts for the hydrogenation of vegetable oil and saturation of alkenes and alkynes to alkanes.
- MnO₂ can be used as a catalyst for the decomposition of H₂O₂.
- TiCl₄ is used as catalyst for the manufacture of plastics.
- V₂O₅ is used to oxidize SO₂ to SO₃ in the manufacture of H₂SO₄.
- Fe is used as a catalyst for synthesis of NH₃ in Haber's process. About of Na₂O or K₂O and about SiO₂ or Al₂O₃ are added as promoter. Mo is also sometimes used as a promoter.

COLOUR OF TRANSITION METAL COMPLEXES

When white light is allowed to fall on a complex.

The following things may occur

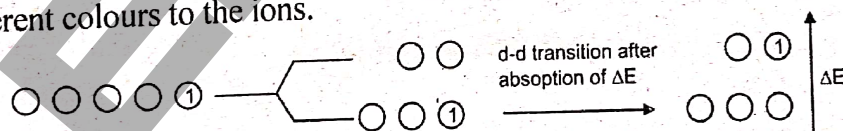
- The complex may absorb the whole of white light. In this case complex appears black.
- The complex may reflect or transmit the whole light. In this case it appears white.
- The complex may absorb some of it and may reflect or transmit the remaining light.

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

The colour of the transition metal ions is due the presence of unpaired electrons or incomplete d-orbitals. Due to d-d transition.

Mechanism:

- When light is allowed to fall on a substance, it absorbs from it the light of a particular colour whose wavelength is in the visible region (4000-7000Å) and reflects the remaining light which has the colour complementary to that of the absorbed light.
- Complementary colour which is actually the colour of reflected light becomes the colour of the substance.
- Every ion absorbs a different wavelength and transmits the remaining set of wavelengths that gives different colours to the ions.



Absorption of yellow light by [Ti(H₂O)₆]³⁺ ion.

In [Ti(H₂O)₆]³⁺, yellow light is absorbed, while most of the blue and red lights are transmitted, therefore the solution of [Ti(H₂O)₆]³⁺ ions look violet in colour..

CRITICAL THINKING?

- Q.1 The colour of complex may not be shown by
- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| A. V ⁺³ | B. Mn ⁺³ |
| C. Ti ⁺³ | D. Sc ⁺³ |

MAGNETIC BEHAVIOUR

Many transition elements and their compounds are paramagnetic.

Paramagnetism:

The compounds attracted into the magnetic field are called paramagnetic. Paramagnetism is due to the unpaired electrons present in the metals and their compounds.

Examples: Mn^{+2} , Fe^{+2} etc.

Ferromagnetism:

The substances which can be magnetized are called ferromagnetic.

Examples: Fe, Co and Ni etc.

Diamagnetism:

Some substances in which even number of electrons are present, and have paired spins are diamagnetic. They are slightly repelled by magnetic field.

Examples: Zn^{+2} , Sc^{+3} etc.

Magnetic moment:

- The magnetic moment (μ) is related to the number of unpaired electrons (n) by the equation:

$$\mu = \sqrt{n(n+2)}$$

- It is measured in Bohr magneton, BM.
- By measuring magnetic moment, the nature of transition metal compound and oxidation state of transition metal can be calculated.

ALLOY FORMATION

Alloy is mixture of two or more than two metals. Transition metals form alloys with each other.

Reason:

Transition elements have almost similar sizes and atoms of the one metal can easily take up positions in crystal lattice of the other. They form substitutional alloys among themselves.

Example

- Alloy steels are the materials in which the iron atoms are substituted by Cr, Mn and Ni. Steel has more useful properties than iron.
- Brass, bronze and coinage alloys are the best alloys.

Properties:

As alloys are prepared according to the requirements, their characteristics are different, yet few properties are common which are as follows:

- Alloys are comparatively cheap.
- They are strong and flexible but hard alloys can also be prepared.
- They have long life because they do not corrode.
- They are durable.
- They have high melting points.
- They are better conductor but non-conductor alloys are also prepared.

Alloys of Metals	Composition	Properties and Uses
Brass	Cu = 60 – 80% Zn = 20 – 40%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is strong alloy of copper which is soft and flexible. It does not corrode. Due to low melting point, it is easy to use. It is used to make locks, keys, water taps, pipes artificial jewelry, door handles and parts of machines.
Bronze	Cu 90 – 95% Sn 5 – 10%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is strong, brilliant and long lasting. It does not corrode. It is used to prepare medals, coins, badges and bullets etc. besides these; decorative articles are also made from this alloy.
Nichrome	Ni = 60% Cr = 15% Fe = 25%	It is used in electric heaters and filaments of furnaces.

BINDING ENERGY

- Transition elements are tough, malleable and ductile.
- The toughness of the metals is due to greater binding energies.

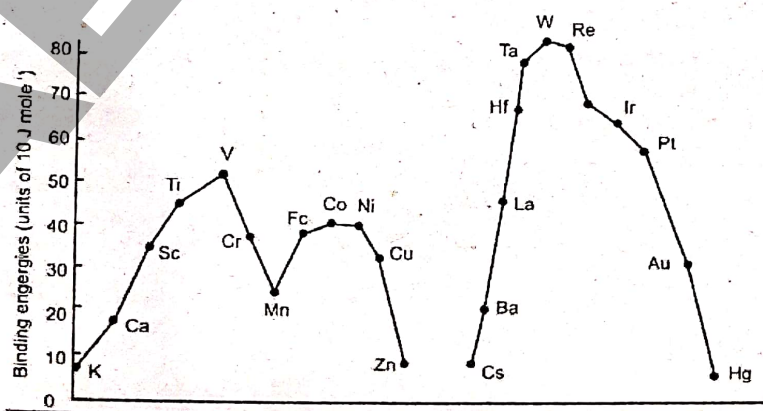
Reason:

It is because the s-electron of outermost shell takes part in chemical bonding. However, the electrons of half-filled d-orbitals also participate in bonding. So, they have greater binding energies and toughness.

Variation in Binding Energies:

- When we move from left to the right in any d-block series, the number of electrons increase up to group V-B; that is vanadium family and VI-B i.e. Cr family.
- After that the pairing of electron starts.
- The unpaired electrons become zero at group II-B.
- It means that binding forces go on increasing up to Cr and then decrease after that.

This is shown for the elements of 3d and 5d series in the following graph.



FORMATION OF COMPLEXES AND THEIR NOMENCLATURE

The compounds containing the complex molecules or complex ions and capable of independent existence are called coordination compounds complexes.

A complex compound may contain

(i) A simple cation and a complex anion

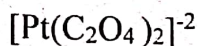
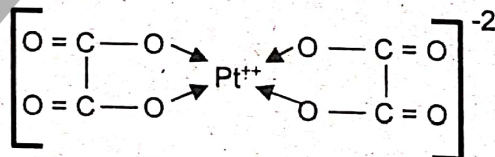
(ii) A complex cation and a simple anion

Component of complex compound

Component	Description	Examples
Central metal atom or ion	Metal atom or metal ion surrounded by number of ligands in the complex compound	$K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$ Fe^{2+} is the central metal ion
Ligand	Ion, atom or neutral molecule that donates electron pairs to central metal atom/ion. Ligand with two donor atoms is called bidentate	OH^- , CN^- , NH_3 , H_2O , $C_2O_4^{2-}$
Co-ordination Number	The number of lone pair of electrons provided by ligands to central atom or ion.	$[Cu(NH_3)_4]SO_4$ The co-ordination number of Copper in this complex is 4.
Co-ordination sphere	The central metal atom or ion along with ligands is called co-ordination sphere.	In $[Ni(CO)_4]$ $[Ni(CO)_4]^0$ is neutral co-ordination sphere.
Charge on co-ordination sphere	Algebraic sum of charges presents on central metal ion and the total charge on the ligands	$[Fe(CN)_6]^{4-}$ Charge on iron = + 2 Total charge on six CN ions = - 6 Charge on the coordination sphere = - 6 + 2 = - 4

Chelates:

A complex compound, in which one or more than one ring is formed due to donation of electrons by poly dentate ligand. e.g. $[Pt(C_2O_4)_2]^{2-}$



Dioxalato-platinate (II) ion

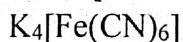
NOMENCLATURE

Naming the complex compound

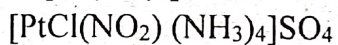
The IUPAC rules for naming the complex compounds are as follows.

- Cations are named before anions.
- In naming the coordination sphere, ligands are named in alphabetical order regardless of the nature and number of each followed by the name of central metal ion.
- The prefixes di, tri, tetra, penta, hexa, etc, are used to specify the number of coordinated same ligand.
- The names of anionic ligands end in suffix "O" e.g. hydroxo OH^- , carbonato CO_3^{2-}
- The names of neutral ligands are usually unchanged, e.g. for NH_3 ammine and for H_2O , aqua.....etc.
- The suffix 'ate' comes at the end of the name of metal if the co-ordination sphere is negative otherwise it remains unchanged.
- The oxidation number of the metal ion is represented by a Roman numeral in parenthesis following the name of the metal.

Examples:



Potassiumhexacyanoferrate(II)



Tetraamminechloronitro-platinum (IV) sulphate.

Writing the formulae of complex compound

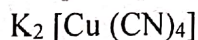
- In writing the formula of complex ion, the usual practice is the symbol of the central metal atom first, followed by the formulae of the ligands.
- The ligands are written anionic ligands first and then neutral ligands.
- Following this sequence, more than one anionic or neutral ligands are written in alphabetical order
- The formula of whole complex ion is enclosed in square brackets.

Examples:

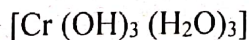
Sodiumhexafluorocobaltate (III)



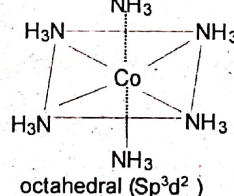
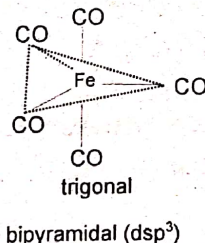
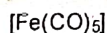
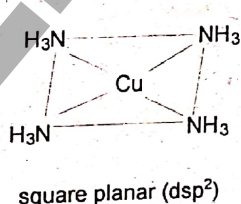
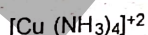
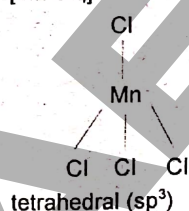
Potassiumtetracyanocupparate (II)



Triaquatrihydroxochromium (III)



Geometry of complex compound



TOPIC-13 FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS OF ORGANIC CHEMISTRY

COURSE CONTENTS

- Classification of organic compound
- Isomerism
- Functional group
- Nomenclature of organic compounds (All families)

INTRODUCTION

ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

- Compounds of carbon and hydrogen (hydrocarbons) and their derivatives
- Fridrick Wohler broke vital force theory
- First laboratory prepared organic compound is urea
- $\text{NH}_4\text{CNO} \rightleftharpoons (\text{NH}_2)_2\text{CO}$
- Exceptions are CO, CO₂, Carbonates, Bicarbonates etc.

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

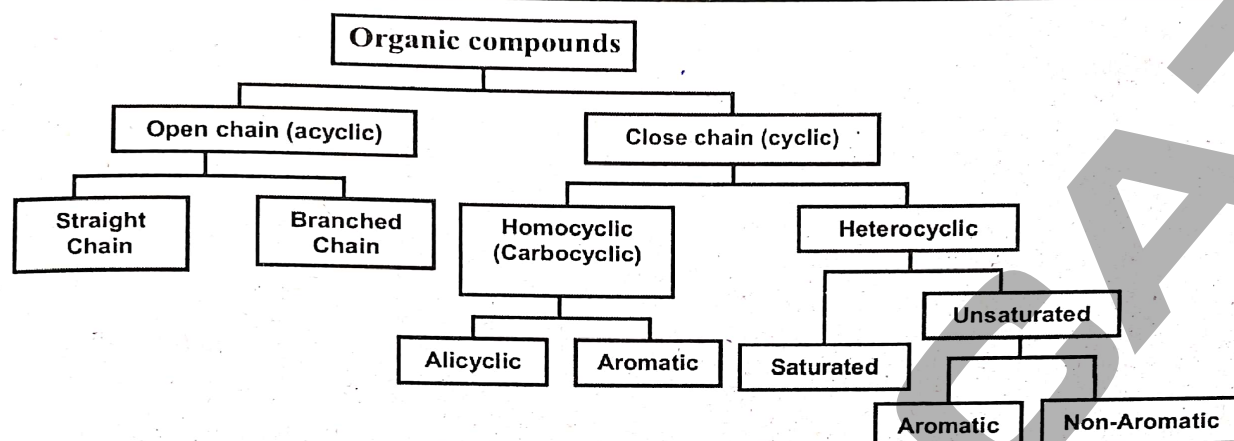
Compounds which are generalized as inorganic compounds include CO, CO₂, Oxides of carbon, Carbonates, Hydrogen carbonates.

Whereas some compounds may form organic compounds after reacting with hydrocarbons but initially they are categorized as inorganic which include groups or compounds such as KOCN, NH₄OCN, HCN, N₂H₄ & NH₂OH

CRITICAL THINKING?

- Q 1. Hydrocarbons and their derivatives are generalized as organic compound, the one which may not be generalized as organic compounds
- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------------|
| A. CCl ₄ | B. CS ₂ |
| C. CH ₃ CN | D. All are organic compounds |
- Q 2. Vital force theory proved that inorganic substance can be synthesized into organic compounds. The compound obtained during Wohler's experiment was
- | | |
|------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| A. NH ₄ CNO | B. KOCN |
| C. HCN | D. (NH ₂) ₂ CO |

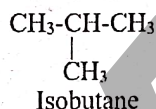
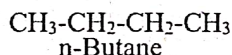
CLASSIFICATIONS OF ORGANIC COMPOUNDS



The carbon skeleton is the basis of classification.

(1) **Open chain (Acyclic or Aliphatic) compounds:**

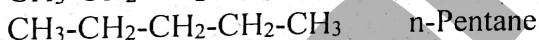
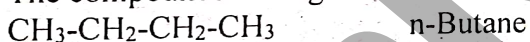
The class of compounds containing open chain of carbon atoms.



They are further classified into two classes.

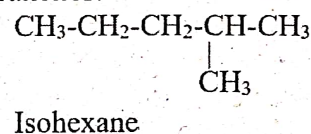
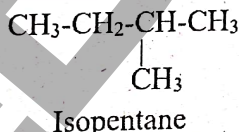
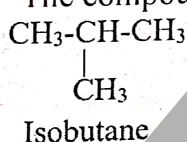
(i) **Straight Chain or Unbranched Compounds**

The compounds having carbon chains without branches.



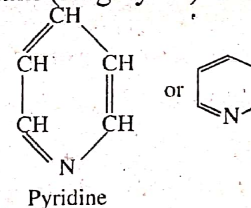
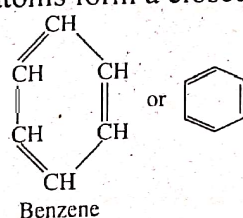
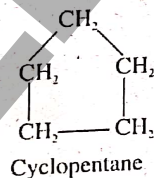
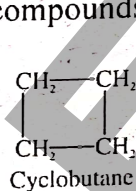
(ii) **Branched chain compounds**

The compounds in which carbon chains have side branches.



(2) **Closed chain compounds (cyclic compounds)**

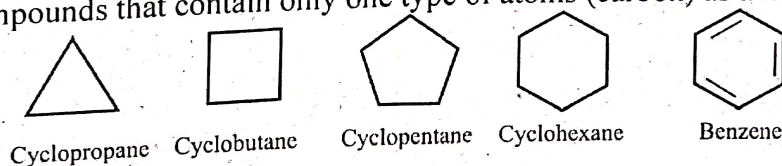
The compounds in which carbon atoms form a closed chain (ring/cycle).



The closed chain compounds are further classified into two main classes.

(i) **Homocyclic or carbocyclic compounds:**

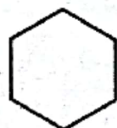
The cyclic compounds that contain only one type of atoms (carbon) as a member of ring.



They are further classified into two classes.

(a) Alicyclic compounds (Non-benzenoid or non-aromatic)

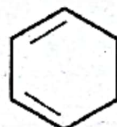
The compounds that contain a ring of three or more carbon atoms and resemble with aliphatic compounds.



Cyclohexane



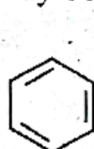
Cyclohexene



1,3-Cyclohexadiene

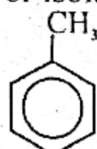
(b) Aromatic compounds (Benzenoid):

The compounds that contain atleast one benzene ring (ring of six carbon atoms with three alternate double and single bonds). Aromatic Compounds may contain more benzene rings which may be fused or isolated.

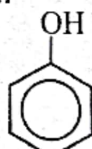


Benzene

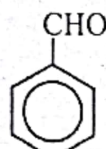
or



Toluene



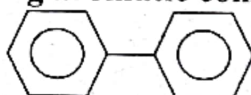
Phenol



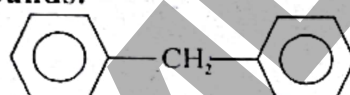
Benzaldehyde



Nitrobenzene

(i) Isolated ring aromatic compounds:

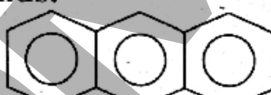
Biphenyl



Biphenyl methane

(ii) Fused ring aromatic compounds:

Naphthalene



Anthracene

(ii) Heterocyclic compounds:

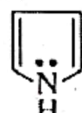
The compounds which contain atleast one atom other than carbon in the ring.



Pyridine



Furan



Pyrrole



Thiophene

ISOMERISM

Isomerism (Iso = same; Merose = units)

Two or more compounds having same molecular formula

but different structures are called isomers and the phenomenon is known as isomerism.

Number of carbons	Number of Isomers
4	2
5	3
6	5

- In saturated hydrocarbons methane, ethane and propane (amongst alkanes) have one structural form only i.e., no isomerism
- Isomerism is possible for compounds having at least four carbon atoms.
- Number of isomers in case of saturated hydrocarbons.
- Number of isomers increases with increase in number of carbon atoms in saturated hydrocarbon.

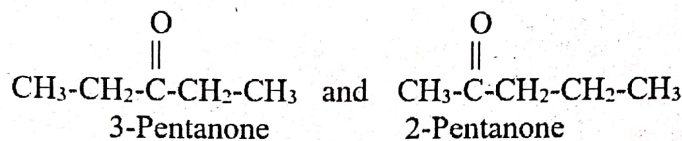
Types of Isomerism

(i) Structural Isomerism

(ii) Geometric isomerism

(i) Structural Isomerism

The compounds having same molecular formula but different structural formulas and properties.



Structural isomers having same formula $\text{C}_5\text{H}_{10}\text{O}$.

Types of Structural Isomerism:

(i) Chain or skeletal isomerism

(ii) Position isomerism

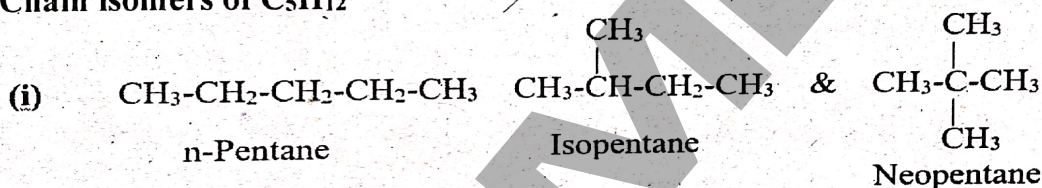
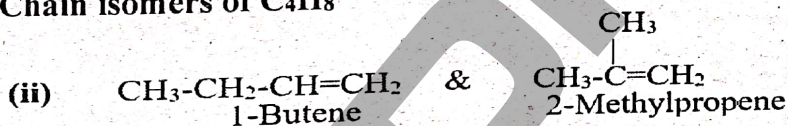
(iii) Functional group isomerism

(iv) Metamerism

(v) Tautomerism

(1) Chain Isomerism or skeletal Isomerism:

The compounds which have same molecular formula but differ with respect to carbon chain (carbon skeleton)

Chain isomers of C_5H_{12} **Chain isomers of C_4H_8** 

The classes of compounds that can usually show chain isomerism are

(i) Alkanes

(ii) Alkenes

(iii) Alkynes

(2) Position Isomerism:

The compounds that have same molecular formula but differ with respect to position of same functional group on carbon chain. The classes of compounds that can show position isomerism are:

(i) Alkenes

(ii) Alkynes

(iii) Alcohols

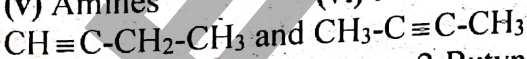
(iv) Alkyl halides

(v) Amines

(vi) Nitroalkanes

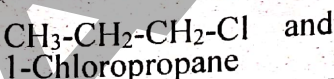
(vii) Thio-alcohols

(viii) Cyano alkanes



1-Butyne

2-Butyne



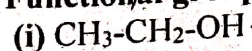
1-Chloropropane

2-Chloropropane

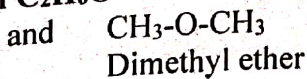
(3) Functional Group Isomerism:

The compounds that have same molecular formula but differ with respect to functional group are called functional group isomers.

The pair classes of compounds that can show functional group isomerism are
1. Alcohols and ethers 2. Aldehydes and Ketones 3. Carboxylic acids and esters.

Functional group isomers of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_6\text{O}$ 

Ethyl alcohol



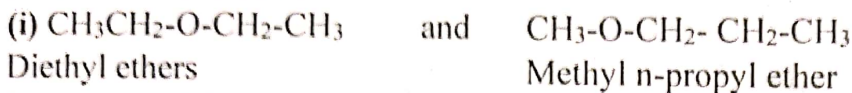
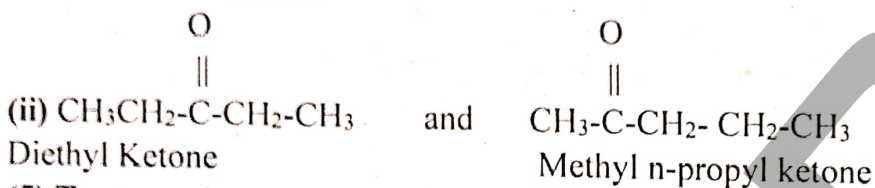
Dimethyl ether

**(4) Metamerism:**

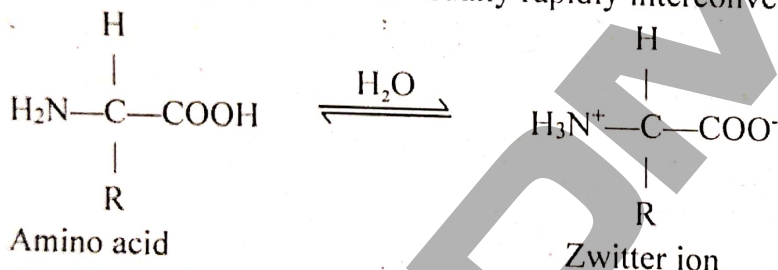
The compounds having same molecular formula but different distribution of carbon atoms on either side of same functional group.

The classes of compounds that can show metamerism are:

- (1) ethers (2) ketones (3) esters

Metamers of $\text{C}_4\text{H}_{10}\text{O}$ **Metamers of $\text{C}_5\text{H}_{10}\text{O}$** **(5) Tautomerism:**

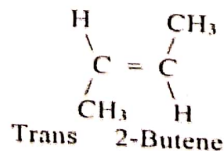
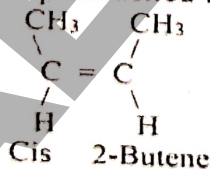
The compounds which differ with respect to position of H-atom within the same molecule. These isomers are usually rapidly interconvertible with each other.

**(2) GEOMETRIC (CIS-TRANS) ISOMERISM**

The compound having same molecular formula and structural formula but differ with respect to the position of identical groups in space.

Conditions to show geometric isomerism:

- (i) There should be a double bond between the two carbon atoms. As a result, position of groups become fixed due to restricted rotation.
 (ii) Two groups attached to the same carbon atoms must be different

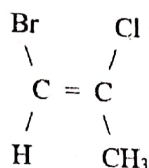
**Cis isomer**

An isomer in which identical groups across the double bond are on the same side is called cis isomer. eg. cis-2-Butene.

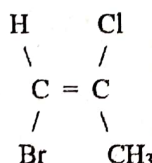
Trans isomer

An isomer in which identical groups across the double bond are on the opposite sides is called trans isomer. eg. trans-2-Butene.

Geometric isomer of 1-Bromo-2-Chloropropene:



Cis-1-Bromo-2-chloropropene




Trans-1-Bromo-2-chloropropene

Difference between homologues and isomers

	Homologues	Isomers
General formula	Applicable	No
Functional group	Same	May or may not be same
Periodic difference of CH ₂	Present	Absent
Structural formula	Similar	Different
Molecular formula	Different	Same
Molecular weight	Different	Same

Formulae of organic compounds

The molecular formula of organic compound may be expressed as: e.g. pentane

Condensed Structural Formula	Displayed Formula	Skeletal Formula
(a) Simple molecular formula: C ₅ H ₁₂ (b) Simple structural formula: CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₃ CH ₃	(a) $\begin{array}{ccccccc} & & & & & & \\ - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - \\ & & & & & & \end{array}$ (b) $\begin{array}{ccccc} & & & & \\ & \text{C} & & \text{C} & \\ & & & & \\ & \text{C} & & \text{C} & \\ & & & & \end{array}$	

FUNCTIONAL GROUP AND NOMENCLATURE OF ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

FUNCTIONAL GROUP

An atom or a group of atoms or a double bond or a triple bond whose presence imparts specific properties to organic compounds is called a functional group.

Characteristics

- Each functional group defines an organic family.
- They are the chemically functional parts of molecules.
- Although over seven million organic compounds are known, but there are only a hundred of functional groups.

Family	Structure of Functional Group	Simple Example
Alkane	Containing only C-H and C-C single bonds Contain no functional group	CH_4 , $\text{CH}_3 - \text{CH}_3$ Methane Ethane
Alkene	>C=C<	$\text{CH}_2 = \text{CH}_2$ (Ethene)
Alkyne	$-\text{C} \equiv \text{C}-$	$\text{HC} \equiv \text{CH}$ (Ethyne or acetylene)
Halide	$\begin{array}{c} \\ -\text{C}-\text{X} \\ \\ (\text{X} = \text{F}, \text{Cl}, \text{Br}, \text{I}) \end{array}$	$\text{CH}_3 - \text{Cl}$ Methyl chloride
Alcohol	$\begin{array}{c} \\ -\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \end{array}$	Methyl alcohol (Methanol)
Ether	$\begin{array}{c} \quad \\ -\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{C}- \\ \quad \end{array}$	$\text{CH}_3 - \text{O} - \text{CH}_3$ Dimethyl ether
Amine	$\begin{array}{c} \\ -\text{C}-\text{N}- \\ \end{array}$	$\text{CH}_3 - \text{NH}_2$ Methyl amine
Nitrile	$\begin{array}{c} \\ -\text{C}-\text{C} \equiv \text{N} \\ \end{array}$	$\text{CH}_3 \text{CN}$ Methyl cyanide (or Ethanitrile)
Nitro	$\begin{array}{c} \\ -\text{C}-\text{N}=\text{O} \\ \quad \downarrow \\ \quad \text{O} \end{array}$	CH_3NO_2 Nitromethane
Thiol	$\begin{array}{c} \\ -\text{C}-\text{SH} \\ \end{array}$	$\text{CH}_3 - \text{SH}$ Methane thiol (Methylthiol)
Carbonyl	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \\ -\text{C}-\text{C}- \\ \end{array}$	Aldehydes; ketones, acids and derivatives of acids
Aldehyde	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \\ -\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \\ \text{CH}_3 - \text{C} - \text{H} \end{array}$ (Acetaldehyde)
Ketone	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \\ -\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}- \\ \quad \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \\ \text{CH}_3 - \text{C} - \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$ Dimethyl ketone (Acetone)
Carboxylic acid	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \\ -\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{OH} \\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \\ \text{CH}_3 - \text{C} - \text{OH} \end{array}$ (Acetic acid)
Ester	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \\ -\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{C}- \\ \quad \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \\ \text{CH}_3 - \text{C} - \text{OCH}_3 \end{array}$ (Methyl acetate)

Acid amide	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \parallel \\ -\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{NH}_2 \\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \parallel \\ \text{CH}_3-\text{C}-\text{NH}_2 \\ \text{(Acetamide)} \end{array}$
Carboxylic acid chloride	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \parallel \\ -\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{Cl} \\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \parallel \\ \text{CH}_3-\text{C}-\text{Cl} \\ \text{(Acetyl chloride)} \end{array}$
Carboxylic acid anhydride	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \quad \text{O} \\ \parallel \quad \parallel \\ -\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{C}-\text{C}- \\ \quad \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \quad \text{O} \\ \parallel \quad \parallel \\ \text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{C}-\text{CH}_3 \\ \text{(Acetic anhydride)} \end{array}$

NOMENCLATURE

Alkanes	Alkenes
Selection of longest continuous carbon chain	Selection of longest continuous carbon chain containing double bond
Start numbering from where any branch is nearest	Start numbering from where double bond is nearest
Write the position of substituent and write the name of substituent alphabetically. use prefix di, tri, tetra if required	Write the position and name of substituent alphabetically, use prefix di, tri, tetra if required
-	Write the position of double bond of lower carbon
Write the name of root chain	Write the name of alkene according to number of C-atoms
	If there are more than one double bond present then write position of each double bond and ene is replaced with suffix diene, triene and tetraene etc.

Formula	IUPAC Name
$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}-\text{CH}_3 \\ \\ \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$	2-Methylpentane
$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}-\text{CH}-\text{CH}_3 \\ \quad \\ \text{H}_3\text{C} \quad \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$	2,3-Dimethylpentane
$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}-\text{CH}-\text{CH}_3 \\ \quad \\ \text{H}_3\text{C} \quad \text{C}_2\text{H}_5 \end{array}$	3,4-Dimethylheptane
$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3-\text{CH}-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}-\text{CH}_3 \\ \quad \\ \text{Cl} \quad \text{Br} \end{array}$	2-Bromo-4-chloropentane
$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}-\text{CH}-\text{CH}_3 \\ \quad \\ \text{Br} \quad \text{Cl} \end{array}$	3-Bromo-2-chlorohexane.

Unsaturated hydrocarbons

- Alkanes are said to be saturated hydrocarbons as they contain only single bonds between carbon atoms.
- Alkenes and alkynes are unsaturated hydrocarbons: they contain multiple bonds between carbon atoms.
- The simplest alkene is ethene $\text{H}_2\text{C} = \text{CH}_2$
- It is the first member of the homologous series of alkenes, which have general formula C_nH_{2n} .
- Alkynes contain one or more carbon – carbon triple bonds. Ethyne $\text{HC} \equiv \text{CH}$ is the first member of the homologous series of alkynes, which have the general formula $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n-2}$

No. of C atoms	Alkane		Alkene		Alkyl Group	
	Formula	Name	Formula	Name	Formula	Name
1	CH_4	Methane			CH_3	Methyl
2	C_2H_6	Ethane	C_2H_4	Ethene	C_2H_5	Ethyl
3	C_3H_8	Propane	C_3H_6	Propene	C_3H_7	Propyl
4	C_4H_{10}	Butane	C_4H_8	Butene	C_4H_9	Butyl
5	C_5H_{12}	Pentane	C_5H_{10}	Pentene	C_5H_{11}	Pentyl
n	$\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}$	Alkane	C_nH_{2n}	Alkene	$\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+1}$	Alkyl (R)

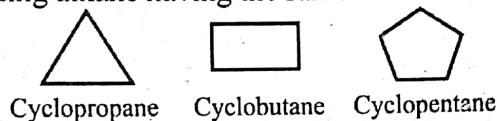
Formula	IUPAC Name
$\text{CH}_3 = \text{CH} - \text{CH}_2 - \text{CH}_3$	But-1-ene
$\text{CH}_2 = \text{CH} - \text{CH} = \text{CH}_2$	Buta-1, 3-diene
$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 - \text{CH}_3 - \text{CH} = \text{C} - \text{CH}_3 \\ \\ \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$	2-Methylpent-2-ene
$\begin{array}{c} 3 \quad 2 \quad 1 \\ \text{H}_3\text{C} - \text{C} \equiv \text{CH} \end{array}$	Propyne
$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 - \text{CH} - \text{CH}_2 - \text{CH}_2 - \text{C} \equiv \text{CH} \\ \\ \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$	5-Methyl-1-hexyne
$\begin{array}{c} 1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \\ \text{HC} \equiv \text{C} - \text{CH} = \text{CH} - \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$	3-Penten-1-yne
$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ 5 \quad 4 \quad 3 \quad 2 \quad 1 \\ \text{HC} \equiv \text{C} - \text{CH} - \text{CH} = \text{CH}_2 \end{array}$	3-Methyl-1-penten-4-yne

NOMENCLATURE OF CYCLOALKANES:

Another type of molecule containing only sp^3 hybridized C and H atoms connected by single bonds is possible with a ring of 3 or more C atoms. These are the cycloalkanes which are fairly common in the world of organic chemistry, both man-made and natural.

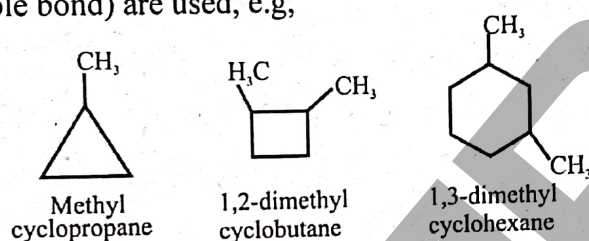
(i) Nomenclature:

According to IUPAC system, cycloalkanes with one ring are named by prefixing cyclo to the name of the corresponding alkane having the same number of carbon atoms as the ring, e.g.

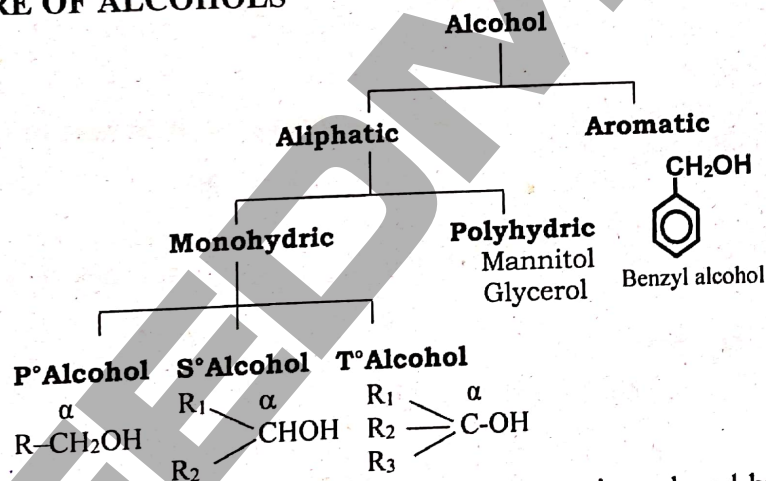


The substituents are numbered in such a way that the sum of numbers is kept minimum, e.g.

If the alicyclic hydrocarbon is unsaturated, the rules applied to alkenes (for double bond) or alkynes (for triple bond) are used, e.g.



Multiple bonds are given the lowest possible number.

NOMENCLATURE OF ALCOHOLS

- They can be regarded as alkanes in which one H atom is replaced by a $-OH$ group and are often called the alkanols.
- The names are arrived at by adapting the name of the parent alkane by changing the terminal $-ane$ to $-ol$.

Formula	IUPAC Name	Formula	IUPAC Name
CH_3OH	Methanol	C_4H_9OH	Butanol
C_2H_5OH	Ethanol	$C_5H_{11}OH$	Pentanol
C_3H_7OH	Propanol	$C_6H_{13}OH$	Hexanol

Monohydric Alcohol	Polyhydric Alcohol
Primary $\begin{array}{c} \text{R} \quad \text{H} \\ \diagdown \quad \diagup \\ \text{C} \\ \diagup \quad \diagdown \\ \text{H} \quad \text{OH} \end{array}$	Dihydric $\begin{array}{cc} \text{CH}_2 & - & \text{CH}_2 \\ & & \\ \text{OH} & & \text{OH} \end{array}$ Ethane-1,2-diol
Secondary $\begin{array}{c} \text{R} \quad \text{H} \\ \diagdown \quad \diagup \\ \text{C} \\ \diagup \quad \diagdown \\ \text{R} \quad \text{OH} \end{array}$	Trihydric $\begin{array}{ccccc} \text{CH}_2 & - & \text{CH} & - & \text{CH}_2 \\ & & & & \\ \text{OH} & & \text{OH} & & \text{OH} \end{array}$ Propane-1,2,3-triol (glycerol)
Tertiary $\begin{array}{c} \text{R} \quad \text{R} \\ \diagdown \quad \diagup \\ \text{C} \\ \diagup \quad \diagdown \\ \text{R} \quad \text{OH} \end{array}$	Tetrahydric $\begin{array}{cccc} \text{CH}_2 & - & \text{CH} & - & \text{CH} & - & \text{CH}_2 \\ & & & & & & \\ \text{OH} & & \text{OH} & & \text{OH} & & \text{OH} \end{array}$ Butane-1,2,3,4-tetraol

NOMENCLATURE OF HALOALKANES

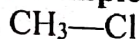
Monohaloalkanes are named as alkyl halides while polyhalo derivative of alkanes are known as haloalkanes.

Alkyl halides

a) Common Names:

Alkyl halides (monohaloalkanes) are named according to the nature of the alkyl group to which halogen atom is attached.

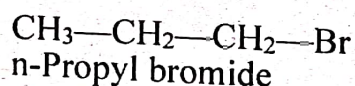
Example:



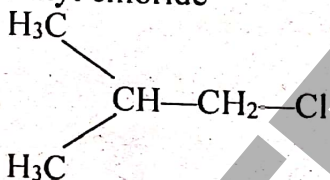
Methyl chloride



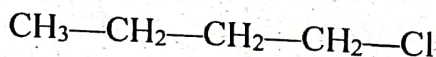
Ethyl bromide



n-Propyl bromide



Isobutyl chloride

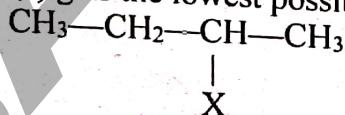


n-Butyl chloride

b) IUPAC Nomenclature:

The systematic names given to alkyl halide follow the underlying rules

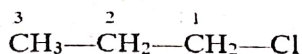
- Select the longest continuous carbon chain and consider the compound to have been derived from this structure.
- Number the carbon atoms in chain so that the carbon atom containing the functional group (F, Cl, Br, I) gets the lowest possible number.



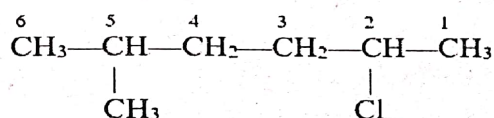
2-Halobutane

- If the same alkyl substituent occurs more than once in the chain, the prefix di, tri, and so on are used before the name of alkyl group.

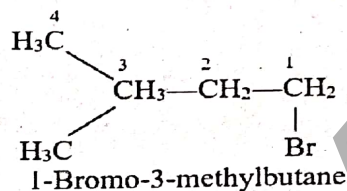
- The position of the substituent is indicated by the appropriate numbers separated by commas. If the same substituent occurs twice on the same carbon atom, the number is repeated.



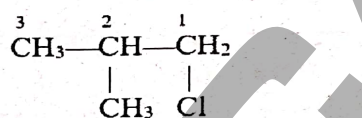
1-Chloropropane



2-Chloro-5-methylhexane



1-Bromo-3-methylbutane



1-Chloro-2-methylpropane

Ethers

Formula	Common Names	IUPAC
CH_3OCH_3	Dimethyl ether	Methoxy methane
$\text{CH}_3\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5$	Methyl ethyl ether	Methoxy ethane
$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5$	Diethyl ether	Ethoxy ethane
$\text{CH}_3\text{OC}_6\text{H}_5$	Methyl phenyl ether (Anisole)	Methoxy benzene

Aldehydes

Trivial name	IUPAC rule
The common names of aldehydes are obtained from the common names of carboxylic acids containing the same number of carbon atoms. The ending -ic acid in the common name of the acid is replaced by the word aldehyde.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Select longest chain containing -CHO group C of aldehyde will get number 1 which is usually not written Write down the position of substituent and name alphabetically Replace the "e" of alkane by "al"

Ketones

Trivial name	IUPAC rule
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write alkyl group alphabetically followed by the name ketone. If both groups are same then prefix di is used before the name of alkyl group If both alkyl groups are different called unsymmetric or mixed ketones. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Select longest chain containing carbonyl group Start numbering with least number to C of carbonyl group. Write down position and name of Substituent alphabetically The position of carbonyl group is prefixed to the alkanone Replace the "e" of alkane with "one"

NOMENCLATURE OF CARBOXYLIC ACIDS

- Organic compounds containing -COOH as a functional group (carb from carbonyl and oxyl from hydroxyl).
- Their general formula is R-COOH

Sr. No.	Formula	IUPAC Name	Common Name
1	HCOOH	Methanoic acid	Formic acid
2	CH_3COOH	Ethanoic acid	Acetic acid
3	$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COOH}$	Propanoic acid	Propionic acid
4	$\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_2\text{COOH}$	Butanoic acid	Butyric acid
5	$\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_3\text{COOH}$	Pentanoic acid	Valeric acid
6	$\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_4\text{COOH}$	Hexanoic acid	Caproic acid
Dicarboxylic acids			
7	HOOCCOOH	Ethanedioic acid	Oxalic acid
8	$\text{HOOC}(\text{CH}_2)\text{COOH}$	Propanedioic acid	Malonic acid
9	$\text{HOOC}(\text{CH}_2)_2\text{COOH}$	Butanedioic acid	Succinic acid
10	$\text{HOOC}(\text{CH}_2)_3\text{COOH}$	Pentanedioic acid	Glutaric acid
11	$\text{HOOC}(\text{CH}_2)_4\text{COOH}$	Hexanedioic acid	Adipic acid
Aromatic acid			
12	$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{COOH}$	Benzoic acid	Benzenecarboxylic acid
13	$\text{C}_6\text{H}_4(\text{COOH})_2$	Phthalic acid	Benzenedicarboxylic acid

TOPIC-14

CHEMISTRY OF HYDROCARBONDS

COURSE CONTENTS

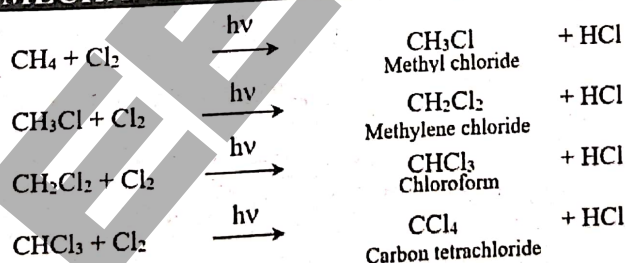
- Describe free radical mechanism (Initiation, Propagation and Termination)
- Describe the mechanism of free radical substitution in alkanes exemplified by methane and ethane
- Structure and reactivity of alkenes as exemplified by ethene.
- Explain dehydration of alcohols and dehydrohalogenation of R - X for the preparation of ethene.
- Describe the preparation of alkynes using elimination reactions
- Discuss the shapes of alkynes in terms of sigma and pi C - C bond.
- Discuss the chemistry of alkynes by hydrogenation, hydrohalogenation, hydration.
- Describe acidity of alkynes.
- Compare the reactivity of alkynes with alkanes, alkenes and arenes
- Describe and differentiate between substitution and addition reactions
- Benzene: Properties, Structure, Modern representation, Resonance method, Electrophilic substitution
- The molecular orbital treatment of benzene
- Describe the mechanism of electrophilic substitution in benzene

CHEMISTRY OF ALKANES

Radical Substitution Reactions

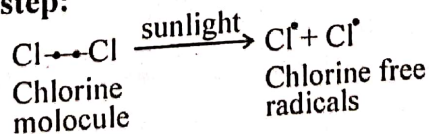
- Substitution of R-H by X provides the alkyl halide, R-X and HX.
- Alkane R-H relative reactivity order: $3^\circ > 2^\circ > 1^\circ > \text{methyl}$.
- Halogen reactivity $\text{F}_2 > \text{Cl}_2 > \text{Br}_2 > \text{I}_2$.
- Only chlorination and bromination are useful in the laboratory.
- Reaction proceeds *via* free radical chain mechanism.

THE MECHANISM OF FREE RADICAL SUBSTITUTION REACTION

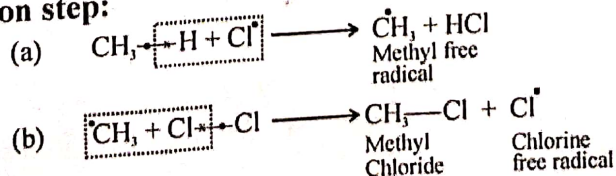


Mechanism:

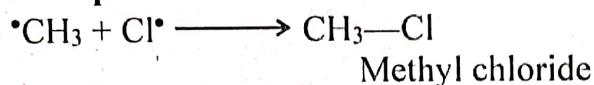
(i) Initiation step:



(ii) Propagation step:



(iii) Termination step:

**Points to Remember:**

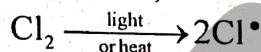
The following facts must be accommodated by any reasonable mechanism for the halogenation reaction.

- The reactivity of the halogens decreases in the following order: $\text{F}_2 > \text{Cl}_2 > \text{Br}_2 > \text{I}_2$.
- We shall confine our attention to chlorine and bromine, since fluorine is so vigorously reactive and it is difficult to control, and iodine is generally unreactive.
- Chlorination and bromination are normally exothermic.
- Energy input in the form of heat or light is necessary to initiate these halogenations.
- If light is used to initiate halogenation, thousands of molecules react for each photon of light absorbed.
- **Inhibitors:** Halogenation reactions may be conducted in either the gaseous or liquid phase.
- **Facilitators:** In gas phase chlorination the presence of oxygen (a radical trap) inhibits the reaction.

In liquid phase halogenation radical initiators such as peroxides facilitate the reaction.

Mechanism of the chlorination of ethane**Step 1:**

Homolysis of the Cl — Cl bond. The necessary energy comes from the light absorbed or the heat supplied. It is easier to split the Cl — Cl bond than the C — H bond. (Bond energy, Cl — Cl = 242 kJ mol^{-1} ; C — H = 435 kJ mol^{-1})

**Step 2:**

The chlorine atoms formed are very reactive. Since they are surrounded by ethane molecules:



The second possibility is more likely because the formation of an H — Cl bond is more exothermic than the formation of a C — Cl bond. (Bond energy, H — Cl = 431 kJ mol^{-1} ; C — Cl = 350 kJ mol^{-1} .)

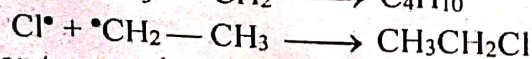
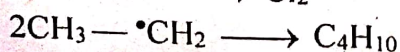
Step 3:

The methyl radicals formed collide with methane molecules and chlorine molecules. The reaction $\cdot\text{CH}_2\text{—CH}_3 + \text{CH}_3\text{—CH}_3 \longrightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{—CH}_3 + \cdot\text{CH}_2\text{—CH}_3$ results in no net change.

The reaction $\cdot\text{CH}_2\text{—CH}_3 + \text{Cl}_2 \longrightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{Cl} + \cdot\text{Cl}$ leads to a chain reaction.

Step 4:

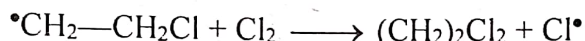
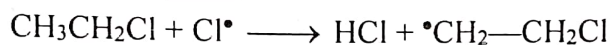
Thousands of molecules of chloroethane are formed for every photon of light absorbed. The high yield is due to the chain reaction — steps 2 and 3. The reason why yield is not higher is that radicals can combine with each other and bring the chain to an end. The reactions



Bring the chain reaction to an end. Some ethane can be detected in the product.

Formation of other halogen substituted products of alkanes

Step 3 can give rise to the chain:



$(\text{CH}_2)_2\text{Cl}_2$ can undergo further chlorination to CH_3CCl_3 , $\text{CH}_2\text{ClCCl}_3$, $\text{CHCl}_2\text{CCl}_3$ and C_2Cl_6

CHEMISTRY OF ALKENES

PREPARATION OF ALKENES

Preparation of alkenes

Reactions	Remarks
Dehydrohalogenation	Removal of hydrogen and halogen from two adjacent carbon atoms is called dehydrohalogenation.
Dehydration of alcohol	▶ Removal of water molecule is called dehydration ▶ Tendency of dehydration is as given below. Tertiary alcohol > Secondary alcohol > Primary alcohol
Dehalogenation of Vic-dihalide	Removal of halogen is called dehalogenation
Kolbe's electrolysis of dicarboxylic acid salts	Salts of saturated dicarboxylic acid are subjected to electrolysis in an aqueous solution and alkenes are formed

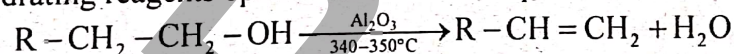
General methods of preparation

(i) Dehydration of alcohols

Alcohols can be dehydrated in the presence of certain catalysts. The catalysts are called dehydrating reagents. The best dehydrating reagents are

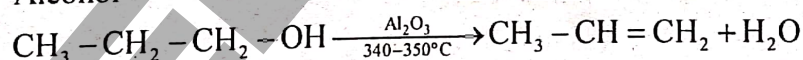
(i) Conc. H_2SO_4 (ii) Al_2O_3 (iii) P_2O_5 or H_3PO_4

All these dehydrating reagents operate at elevated temperature.



Alcohol

An Alkene

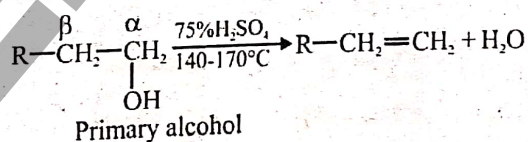


n-Propanol

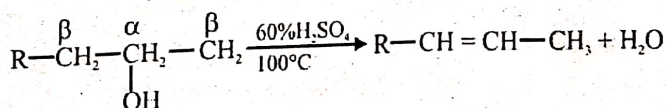
Propene

The order of reactivity of these alcohols is as follows

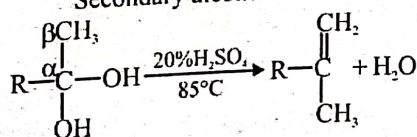
$3^\circ \text{ alcohol} > 2^\circ \text{ alcohol} > 1^\circ \text{ alcohol}$



Primary alcohol



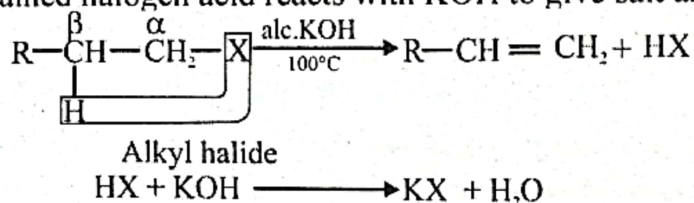
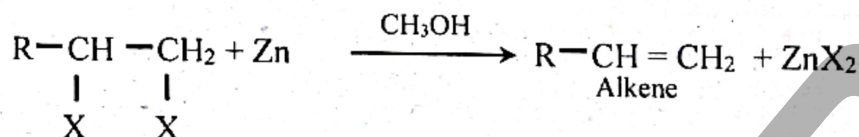
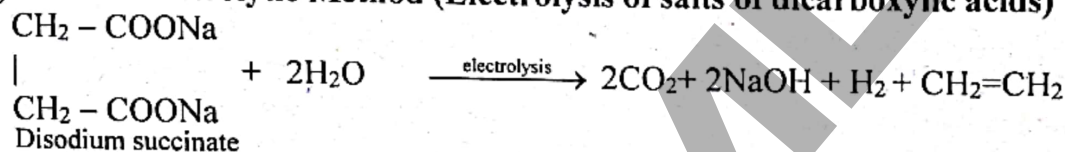
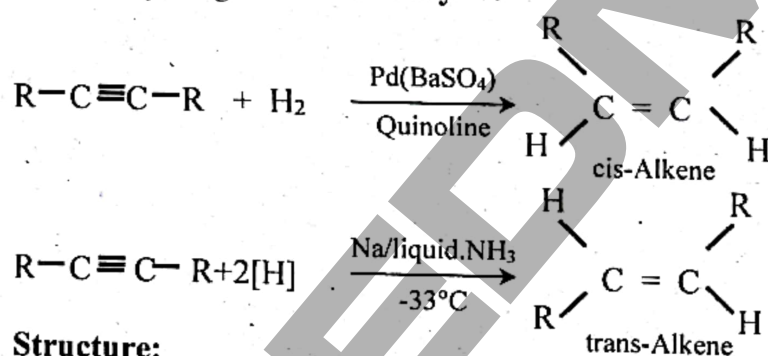
Secondary alcohol



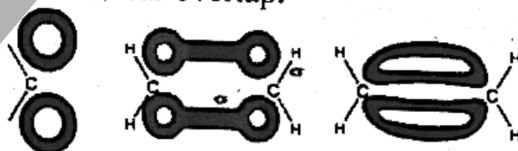
Tertiary alcohol

(ii) Dehydrohalogenation of alkyl halide

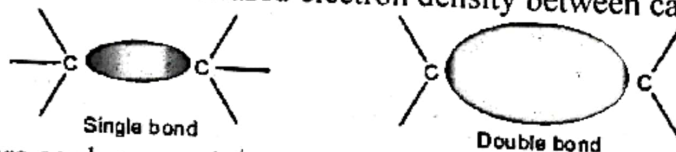
- Alkyl halides on heating with alcoholic potassium hydroxide undergo dehydrohalogenation.
- Elimination of a halogen atom from the α -carbon together with a hydrogen atom from adjacent β -carbon atoms.
- The product obtained halogen acid reacts with KOH to give salt and water.

**(iii) Dehalogenation of Vic-Dihalides****(iv) Kolbe's Electrolytic Method (Electrolysis of salts of dicarboxylic acids)****(v) Partial Hydrogenation of Alkynes****Structure:**

The carbon atoms linked through π -bond are sp^2 hybridized. Therefore, each atom carries three sp^2 -hybrids and one p-orbital. The p-orbital overlap to form π -bond and hybrid orbitals form σ -bonds due to linear overlap.



The carbon-carbon distance in ethene is shorter (1.34\AA) than the C-C bond distance of ethane (1.54\AA). It is due to increased electron density between carbon atoms.



Carbon atoms are coplanar, and the rotation of one C-atom with respect to other is restricted which results in cis-trans isomerism in alkene.

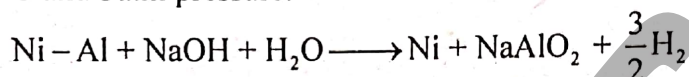
REACTIONS OF ETHENE

ADDITION REACTIONS

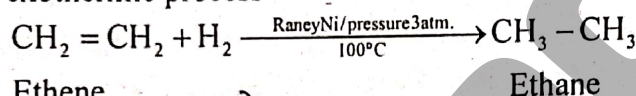
Catalytic hydrogenation

Both quantitative & analytical

- Addition of hydrogen molecule to an unsaturated compound in the presence of catalyst at moderate pressure to give a saturated compound.
- The catalysts which are mostly employed are platinum, palladium and Raney nickel
- Raney nickel is prepared by treating an alloy of Ni and Al with caustic soda. It functions better at about 100°C and 3atm pressure.



- Hydrogenation is an exothermic process



Halogenation

(Baeyer's Test)

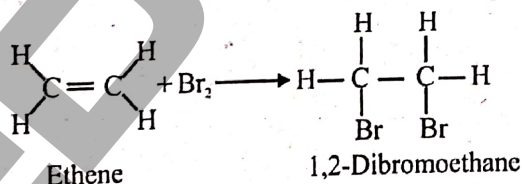
- Alkenes react with halogens to give dihaloalkanes (vicinal dihalides).
- The solvent used in the halogenation is inert, like CCl_4
- This reaction happens at room temperature.
- Halogen attack at the double bond in the form of electrophiles.
- The order of ease of addition of halogen in an alkene is



Iodine does not react with alkenes.

- The reddish brown colour of Br_2 in this reaction is discharged therefore it is used to verify the presence of carbon-carbon double bond in the compound.

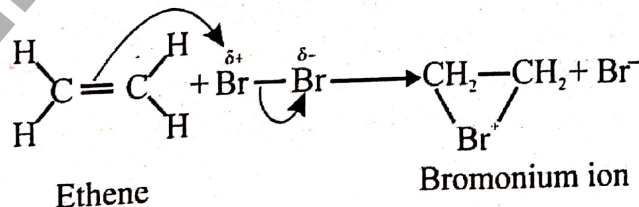
Reaction



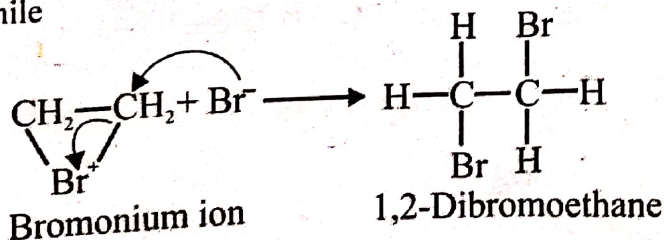
Mechanism

Addition of halogen in alkene is two step mechanism

Step-1

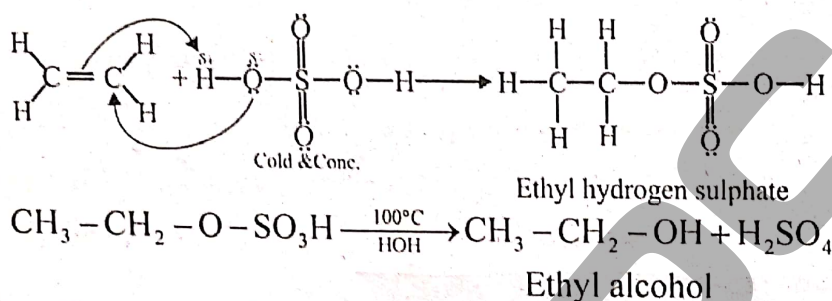


Step-2

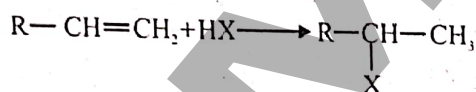
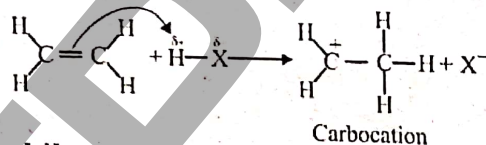
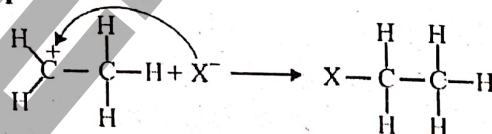
 Br^- acts as nucleophile

Hydration of alkenes (Addition of sulphuric acid)

- When alkenes are treated with cold concentrated sulphuric acid, they are dissolved because they form alkyl hydrogen sulphate.
- Alkyl hydrogen sulphates on boiling with water decompose to give corresponding alcohols.
- This reaction can be used to convert alkenes into alcohols.
- If 10% H_2SO_4 is used, then alcohols are produced directly

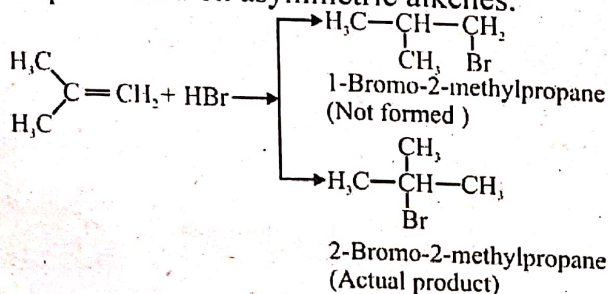
Reactions**Reaction with HBr with special reference to Markownikov's rule**

- Alkenes react with dry gaseous hydrogen halides to form alkyl halides.
- The order of reactivity of halogen acids is $\text{HI} > \text{HBr} > \text{HCl}$.
- Reaction mechanism involves carbocation formation.

Reaction**Mechanism****Step-1 Formation of carbocation****Step-2 Attack of nucleophile****Markownikov's rule**

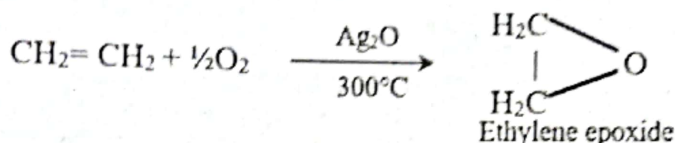
"In the addition of an unsymmetrical reagent to an unsymmetrical alkene, the negative part of the adding reagent goes to that carbon, constituting the double bond, which has least number of hydrogen atoms."

- Markownikov's rule is implemented on asymmetric alkenes.



OXIDATION REACTIONS

Addition of oxygen

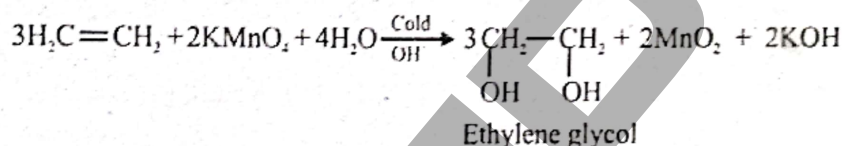


- Epoxides serve as the starting substances for the industrial production of glycols.

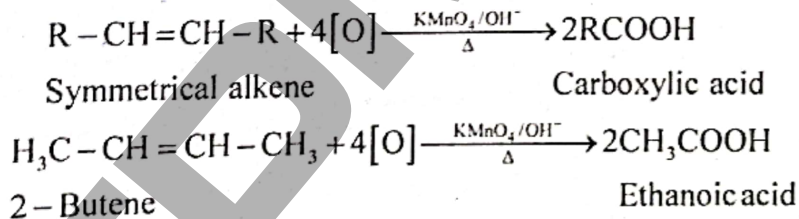
Hydroxylation

(i) Using cold alkaline or acidic KMnO_4 (Baeyer's reagent)

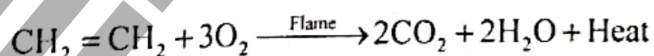
- This is also known as hydroxylation of alkene.
- Dilute 1% alkaline KMnO_4 solution is called Baeyer's reagent.
- The pink colour of KMnO_4 solution is discharged during the reaction.
- This reaction can be used to check the presence of carbon-carbon double bond in a molecule.

(ii) Using hot concentrated acidic or alkaline KMnO_4 (Oxidative Cleavage)

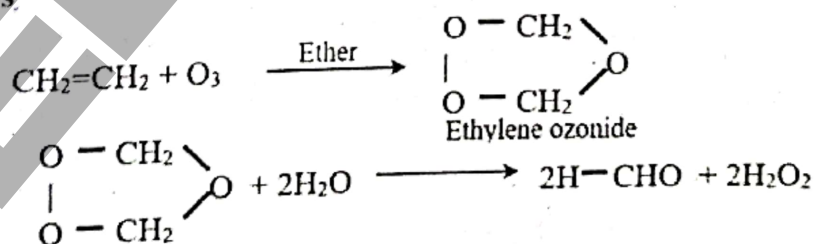
- Alkenes when heated with alkaline KMnO_4 are cleaved at the double bond to form carboxylic acids.
- Carboxylic acids are formed from oxidative cleavage of alkene.



(3) Combustions



(4) Ozonolysis

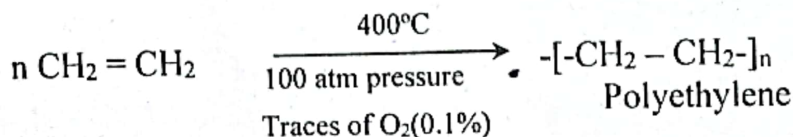


- Ozonolysis is used to locate the position of double bond in an alkene.

Polymerization:

In this process small organic molecules (monomers) combine together to form larger molecules known as polymers.

Ethene at 400°C and 100 atm pressure, polymerize to polythene or polyethylene.



A good quality polythene is obtained, when ethene is polymerized in the presence of aluminium triethyl Al (C₂H₅)₃ and titanium tetrachloride catalysts (TiCl₄).

PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF ALKANES AND ALKENES

Alkanes	Alkenes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Alkanes containing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> → C₁-C₄ colourless and odourless gases → C₅-C₁₇ colourless and odourless liquids → C₁₈-onwards colourless and odourless waxy solids ▶ Being non-polar, they are insoluble in water but soluble in non-polar solvents ▶ Physical constants ↑ Number of carbon atoms ↑ ▶ Solubility ↓ Molecular mass ↑ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ First three members i.e ethene, propene and butene are gases at room temperature while C₅ to C₁₅ are liquids and the higher members are solids ▶ They are insoluble in water but soluble in alcohol ▶ They have characteristic smell and burn with luminous flame ▶ Unlike alkanes, they show weakly polar properties because of sp² hybridization

CRITICAL THINKING?

Q.1 C₅H₁₀ is a hydrocarbon, with physical properties

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| A. Colourless, odourless solid | B. Liquid with characteristic smell |
| C. Soluble in polar solvent | D. Solid with no odour |

PREPARATION OF ALKYNES BY ELIMINATION REACTIONS

Alkynes can be prepared by the following methods:

(i) Elimination reaction

(ii) Alkylation of sodium acetylide

But we discuss here only elimination reactions.

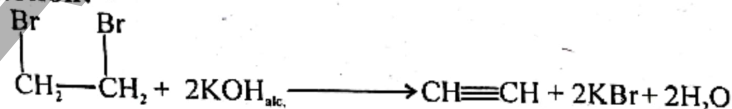
(i) **Elimination of Hydrogen Halide (Dehydrohalogenation):**

Alkynes can be prepared by dehydrohalogenation of vicinal and geminal dihalides in the presence of some alkaline reagents.

(2) **Dehydrohalogenation of vicinal dihalides:**

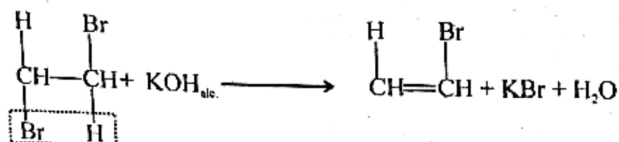
Strong base like alcoholic potassium hydroxide eliminates two molecules of hydrogen halides from vicinal dihalides forming an alkyne.

Reaction:

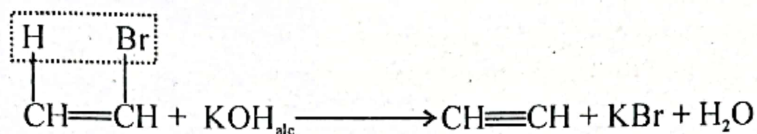


Stepwise:

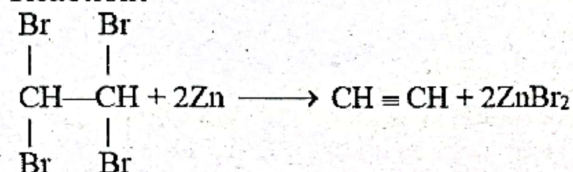
(i)



(ii)

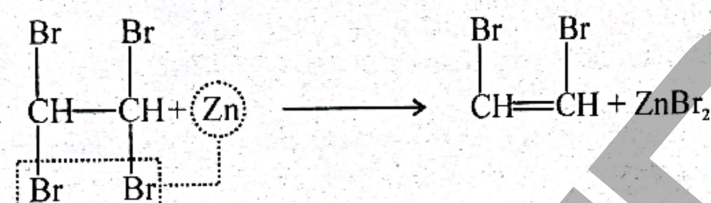
**(1) Dehalogenation of Tetrahalides:**

Tetra haloalkanes on treatment with active metals like Zn, Mg etc. form alkynes.

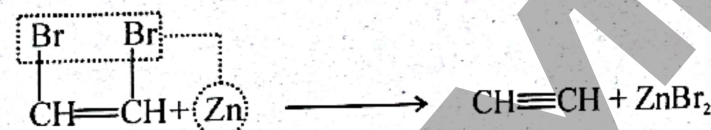
Reaction:

Stepwise: This reaction actually takes place in two steps.

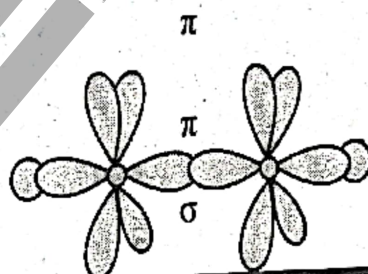
(i)



(ii)

**STRUCTURE**

The two carbons of acetylene (alkyne) are sp -hybridized. They are linked by a sigma bond due to sp - sp orbitals overlap. The unhybridized two p -orbitals on one carbon overlap with two p -orbitals on other carbon to form two π -bonds. The cloud of π -electrons is present cylindrically symmetrical about the carbon-carbon sigma-bond. Rotation about carbon-carbon sigma bond does not cause any change in energy and electron density. It is a linear molecule, and hence geometrical isomer is not observed in it.

**PHYSICAL PROPERTIES****(i) Solubility:**

In general, alkynes are non-polar and are insoluble in water but soluble in non-polar organic solvents.

(ii) Color and odour:

They are colourless, odourless except acetylene which has a garlic like odour.

(iii) Melting point, boiling point and densities:

The melting points, boiling points and densities increases gradually with the increase in molecular masses.

(iv) Physical state:

The first three members carbon alkynes (C_2-C_4) are gases. The next eight members (C_5-C_{12}) are liquids and higher members are solids at room temperature.

Reactivity

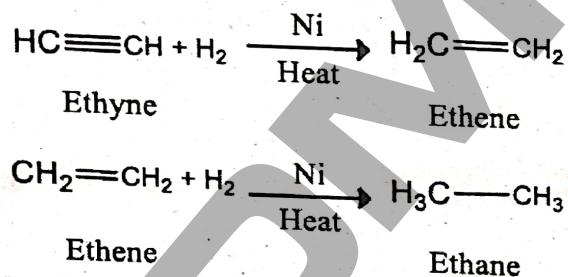
Acetylene (alkyne) is an unsaturated hydrocarbon and shows addition reactions. It also undergoes substitute reactions due to easy cleavage of C-H bond. The pi-electrons are cylindrically symmetrical about carbon-carbon sigma bond and the removal of terminal hydrogen is possible without disturbing carbon-carbon bonding. Therefore, electrophile substitute reactions are possible in 1-alkynes.

ADDITION REACTIONS OF ALKYNES

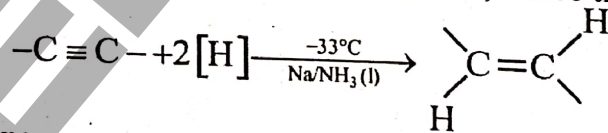
- (i) Alkynes undergo addition reactions in an analogous fashion to those of alkenes.
- (ii) The high electron density of the pi bonds makes them nucleophile.
- (iii) Two factors influence the relative reactivity of alkynes compared to alkenes:
- (iv) Increased nucleophilicity of the starting pi system
- (v) Stability of any intermediates (for example carbocations)

Hydrogenation:

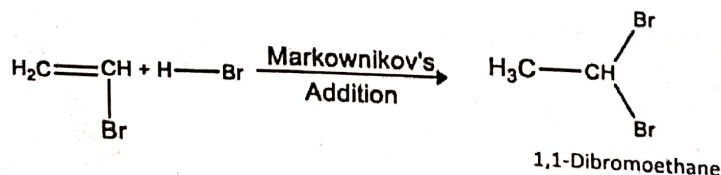
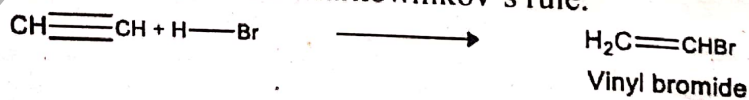
Alkynes react with hydrogen gas in the presence of suitable catalysts like finely divided Ni, Pt or Pd. In the first step alkenes are formed which then take up another molecule of hydrogen to form an alkane.

**Dissolving Metal reduction as Addition of hydrogen:**

Alkynes can be reduced to *trans*-alkenes using Na in NH_3 (liq.). This reaction is stereospecific giving only the *trans*-alkene through an *anti* addition. The stereochemistry of this reaction complements that of catalytic hydrogenation. The reaction proceeds through single electron transfer from the Na with H coming from the NH_3 . These reaction conditions do not reduce alkenes, hence the product is the alkene.

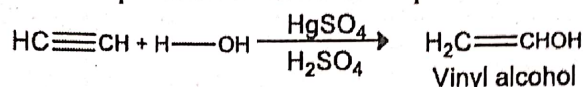
**Hydrohalogenation:**

Alkynes react with hydrogen chloride and hydrogen bromide to form dihaloalkenes. The reaction occurs in accordance with Markownikov's rule.

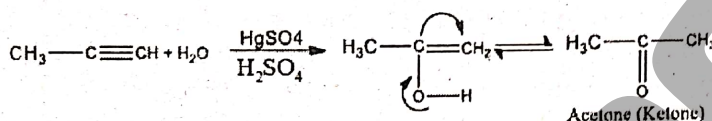
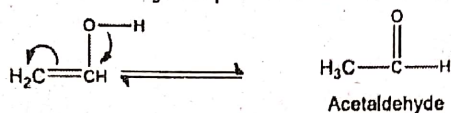


Hydration:

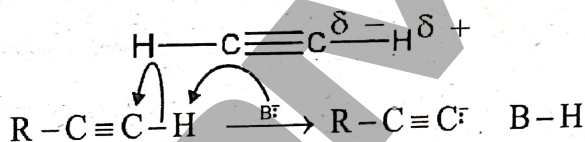
Water adds to acetylene in the presence of mercuric sulphate dissolved in sulphuric acid at 75°C.



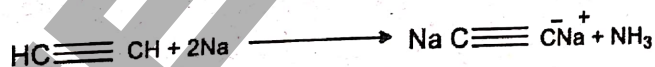
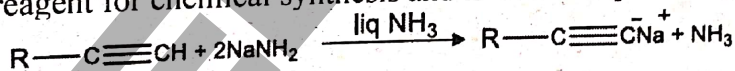
Vinyl alcohol is unstable. It has the hydroxyl group attached to a doubly bonded carbon atom and isomerizes to acetaldehyde. Except acetylene all other alkynes give ketones. This reaction is industrially important because aldehydes can be prepared by this method.

**ACIDITY OF TERMINAL ALKYNES**

In ethyne and other terminal alkynes like propyne, the hydrogen atom is bonded to the carbon atoms with sp-s overlap. As sp hybrid orbital has 50% s-character in it and renders the carbon atoms more electronegative. As a result, the sp hybridized carbon atom of a terminal alkyne pulls the electrons more strongly making the attached hydrogen atom slightly acidic. This can be substituted with metal. Thus substitution reaction occurs due to $\text{H}^{+\delta}$.

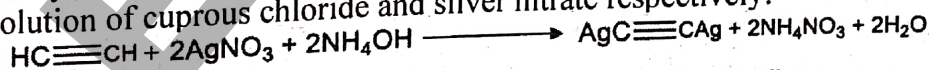
**Examples:**

- (i) When 1-alkyne or ethyne is treated with sodamide in liquid ammonia or passed over molten sodium, alkynides or acetylides are obtained. Sodium acetylide is a very valuable reagent for chemical synthesis and is essentially ionic in nature.



Disodium acetylide

- (ii) Acetylides of copper and silver are obtained by passing acetylene in the ammonical solution of cuprous chloride and silver nitrate respectively.

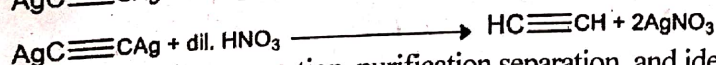
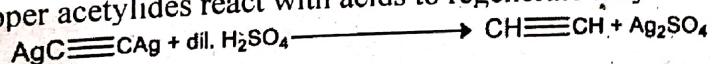


Disilver acetylide or silver ethynide, (white ppt.)



Dicopper acetylide or copper ethynide (Reddish brown)

Silver and copper acetylides react with acids to regenerate alkynes.



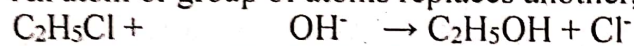
These alkynides are used for the preparation, purification separation, and identification of alkynes. similar whether in the gas phase or solution phase.

Reactions of organic compounds**Types of Reactions**

The reactions of organic compounds fall into four classes. These are listed below.

Substitution

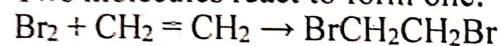
An atom or group of atoms replaces another, e.g. in hydrolysis.



Chloroethane + Hydroxide ion \rightarrow Ethanol + Chloride ion

Addition

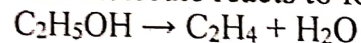
Two molecules react to form one:



Bromine + Ethene \rightarrow 1,2-Dibromoethane

Elimination

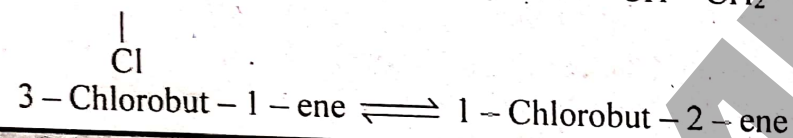
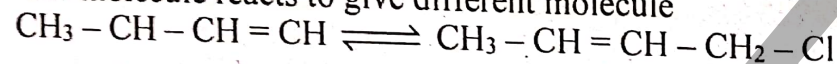
One molecule reacts to form more than one:



Ethanol \rightarrow Ethene + Water

Rearrangement

One molecule reacts to give different molecule

**BENZENE****STABILITY OF STRUCTURE OF BENZENE****The stability of benzene**

- The stability of benzene is due to the extensive delocalization of electron cloud. The delocalized electrons increase the stability of benzene
- Heat of hydrogenation of cyclohexene and 1,3-cyclohexadiene is -119.5 kJ/mole and -231.5 kJ/mole respectively
- Due to the phenomenon of resonance and resonance energy, the heat of hydrogenation of benzene is lesser (-208 kJ/mole) than that of 1,3,5-cyclohexatriene.

	Cyclohexene	1,3-Cyclohexadiene	1,3,5-Cyclohexatriene
Expected hydrogenation energy	-119.5 kJ mol ⁻¹	-239 kJ mol ⁻¹	-358.5 kJ mol ⁻¹
Actual hydrogenation energy	-119.5 kJ mol ⁻¹	-231.5 kJ mol ⁻¹	-208 kJ mol ⁻¹
Resonance energy	0.0	7.5 kJ mol ⁻¹	150.5 kJ mol ⁻¹

Kekule's Structure

- ▶ Planar hexagonal structure of benzene containing three double bond alternate to single bond
- ▶ Kekule's structure gives only one mono substituted benzene
- ▶ It gives three disubstituted benzene isomeric products i.e ortho, meta, para.
- ▶ As benzene adds three molecules of hydrogen and chlorine.

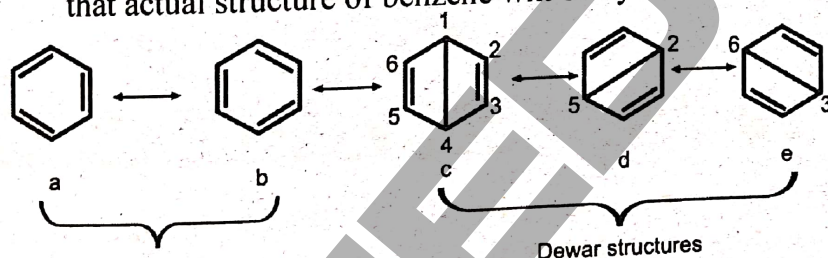
Objection

Kekule's structure favours the unsaturation of benzene while benzene acts as saturated hydrocarbon in most of the reactions.

The resonance method**Resonance**

The possibility of different pairing schemes of valence electrons of atoms is called resonance and the different structures thus arranged are called resonance structures.

- o Different Lewis structures are called resonance contributing structures or canonical forms.
- o The resonance structures are represented by (\leftrightarrow) double headed arrow
- o Dewar is the scientist, who gave the concepts of para bonds in structure of benzene. But his structure contributes very little in prediction of actual structure of benzene
- o Kekule's structure of benzene (alternate double bonds in planar hexagonal ring) contributed more in prediction of actual structure of benzene.
- o Bond lengths in hydrocarbon are as under:
- o Bond length in C-C in benzene (1.397\AA) shows that it is in between single and double bond
- o Due to fact of bond length, it was proposed that actual structure of benzene will be hybrid of Kekule's and Dewar's structures.



Kekule's structures

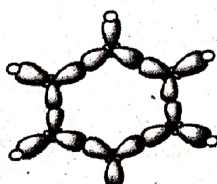
Dewar structures

Molecular orbital treatment:

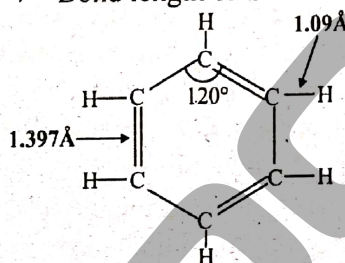
Thus each C-atom is in a state of sp^2 -hybridization because each C-atom is attached to three atoms.



Combination of such six structures and overlap of six hydrogen atoms ($1s^1$) produces the sigma framework of benzene.

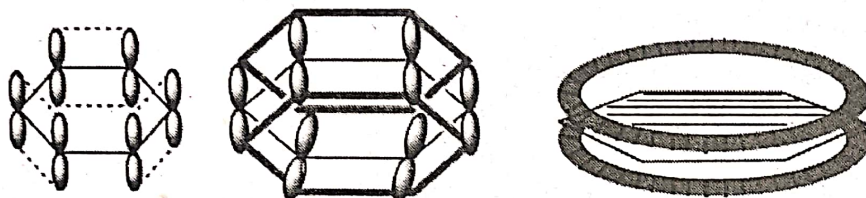
**CRITICAL CONCEPT!****X-ray studies of benzene structure**

- ▶ Benzene is hexagonal structural compound
- ▶ C - C-H and C-C-C bond angle is 120°
- ▶ Bond length of C-C bond is 1.397\AA
- ▶ Bond length of C-H bond is 1.09\AA



Nature of bond	Bond length
C - C	1.54\AA
C = C	1.34\AA
C \equiv C	1.20\AA
C-C in benzene	1.397\AA

Six atomic p-orbitals one on each C-atom, are present perpendicular to this sigma bonding. Each p-orbital is in a position to overlap in parallel manners with neighbouring p-orbitals to give a continuous sheath of negative charges.

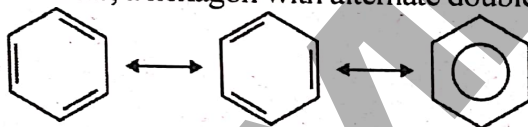


It results in extensive delocalized pi-bonding which spreads over all the carbon nuclei of benzene. Delocalization of p-orbitals over the entire ring produces sandwich like structure of benzene and decreases the energy of molecule. Consequently, the molecule becomes more stable and less reactive.

According to this molecular orbital picture each carbon-carbon bond in benzene consists of one full sigma-bond and half a pi-bond. Because of this reason, the carbon-carbon bond length is equal and benzene shows substitution as well as addition reactions.

Modern representation of benzene:

With the help of molecular orbital behaviour we conclude that benzene has a regular hexagonal structure with an inscribed circle, a hexagon with alternate double and single bonds.



CRITICAL THINKING ?

Q.2 The number of pi bonds in benzene is:

- A. Three localized pi bonds
- C. Six localized pi bonds

- B. Three delocalized pi bonds
- D. Six delocalized pi bonds

ELECTROPHILIC SUBSTITUTION REACTIONS AND THE MECHANISM

The species which are electron deficient called **electrophiles**.

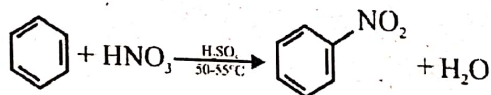
- Presence of delocalized electrons in benzene increases the stability of benzene, so **very strong electrophile is required** for attacking purpose.

(1) Nitration

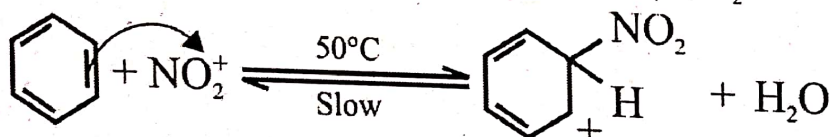
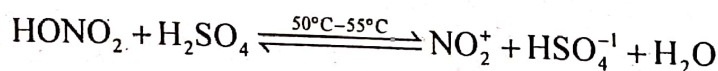
The introduction of nitro group (NO_2) in benzene ring is called nitration of benzene.

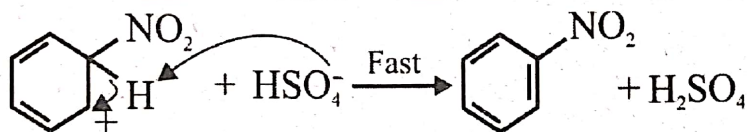
- The nitration takes place when it is heated with 1: 1 mixture of concentrated HNO_3 and concentrated H_2SO_4 at $50-55^\circ\text{C}$.
- Sulphuric acid reacts with nitric acid to generate nitronium ion NO_2^+

Reaction



Mechanism



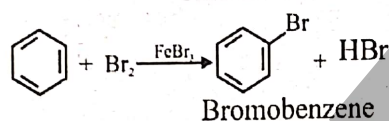
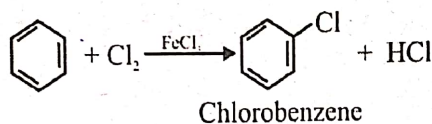
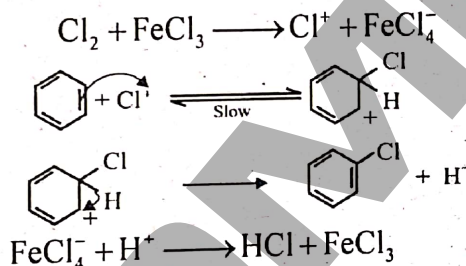


Nitrobenzene

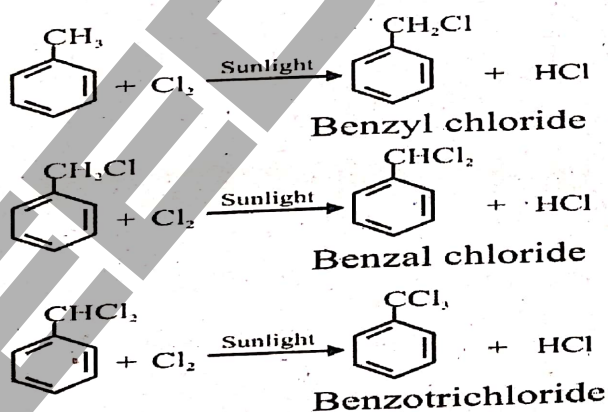
(2) Halogenation (Chlorination and bromination)

The introduction of halogen group in benzene ring is called halogenation of benzene.

- Benzene reacts with halogen in presence of catalyst Lewis acid like FeBr_3 , AlCl_3 etc.
- Chlorination and bromination are normal; reactions but fluorination is too vigorous to control.
- Iodination gives poor yield.

Reaction**Mechanism**

When alkyl benzene is treated with chlorine or bromine in the presence of sunlight, only alkyl groups are substituted.

**(3) FRIEDEL-CRAFT'S REACTIONS**

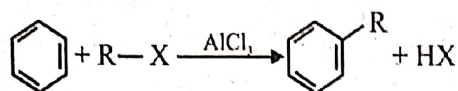
The substitution of hydrogen of benzene ring by an alkyl, aryl or acyl group is called Friedel-Craft's reactions.

The catalyst used in Friedel-Craft's reactions are Lewis acids like AlCl_3 , BF_3 etc.

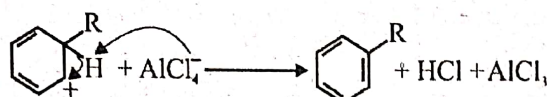
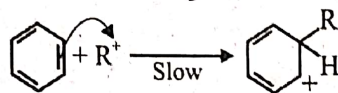
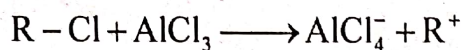
(i) Friedel-Craft's Alkylation

When alkyl chlorides are treated with benzene in the presence of AlCl_3 then alkylation takes place. The product obtained is alkyl benzene.

Reaction



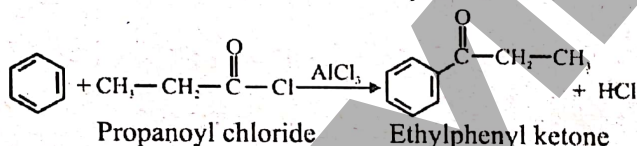
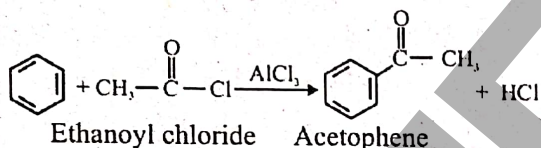
Mechanism



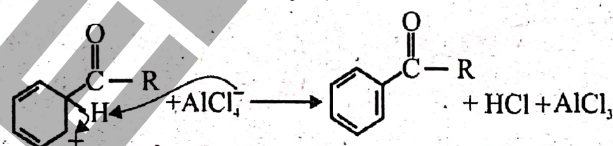
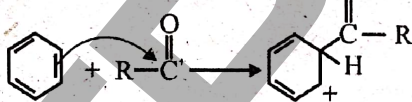
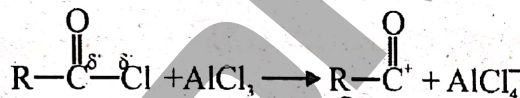
(ii) Friedel-Craft's Acylation

When acyl chloride is treated with benzene in the presence of AlCl_3 then acylation takes place. The product obtained is aromatic ketone.

Reaction

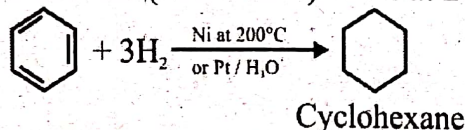


Mechanism



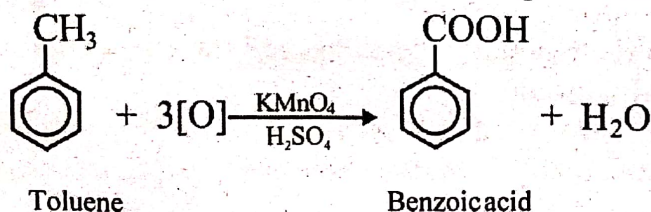
HYDROGENATION OF BENZENE RING

Benzene is reduced to cyclohexane on heating at high temperature with hydrogen in the presence of Pt in an acidic solvent (acetic acid) or Ni at 200°C as a catalyst,



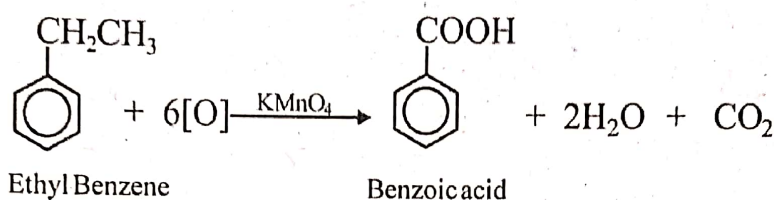
SIDE CHAIN OXIDATION OF ALKYL BENZENE

- Alkyl benzenes are readily oxidized by acidified KMnO_4 or $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$.
- In these reactions, the alkyl groups are oxidized keeping the benzene ring intact.



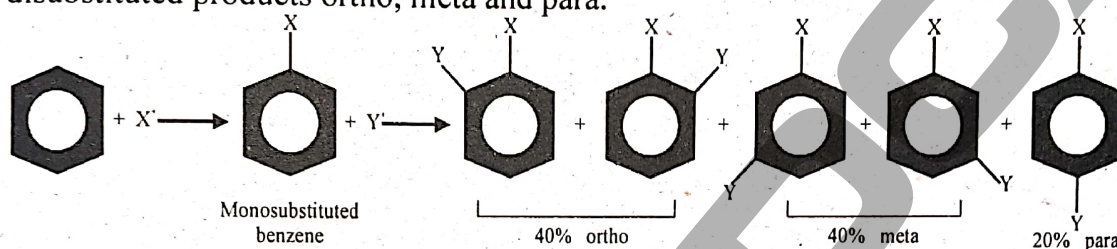
- The colour of KMnO_4 is discharged. Therefore, this reaction is used as a test for alkyl benzenes.

- o Whatever the length of an alkyl group may be it gives only one carboxyl group.

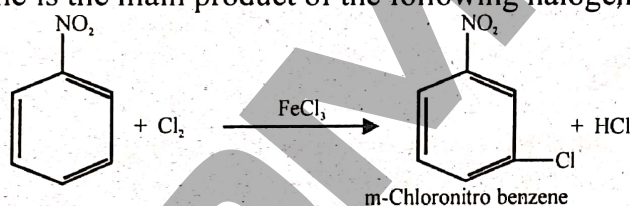


BENZENE RING BY 2, 4 DIRECTING AND 3, 5 DIRECTING GROUPS

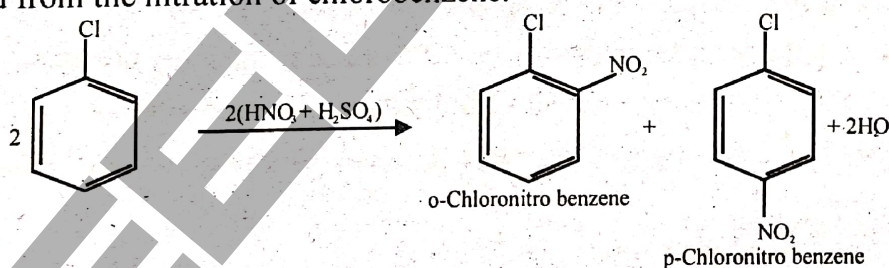
When an electrophilic substitution reaction takes place on benzene ring we get only one mono substituted benzene because all the six positions in the ring are equivalent. However, the introduction of a second group into the ring may give three isomeric disubstituted products ortho, meta and para.



On chance basis 40% ortho, 40% meta and 20% para disubstituted products are expected. But the actual disubstitution of benzene does not follow this principle of chance. eg m-nitrochlorobenzene is the main product of the following halogenation reaction.



On the other hand, a mixture of o-nitro-chlorobenzene and p-nitrochlorobenzene is obtained from the nitration of chlorobenzene.



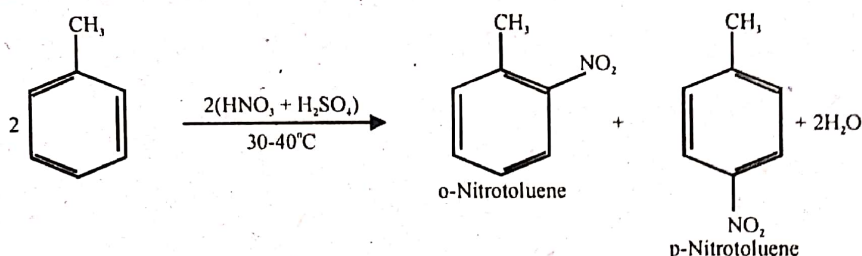
It means that the group present in the mono-substituted benzene ring has the directive effect and thus determines the position or orientation for the new incoming groups.

There are two types groups.

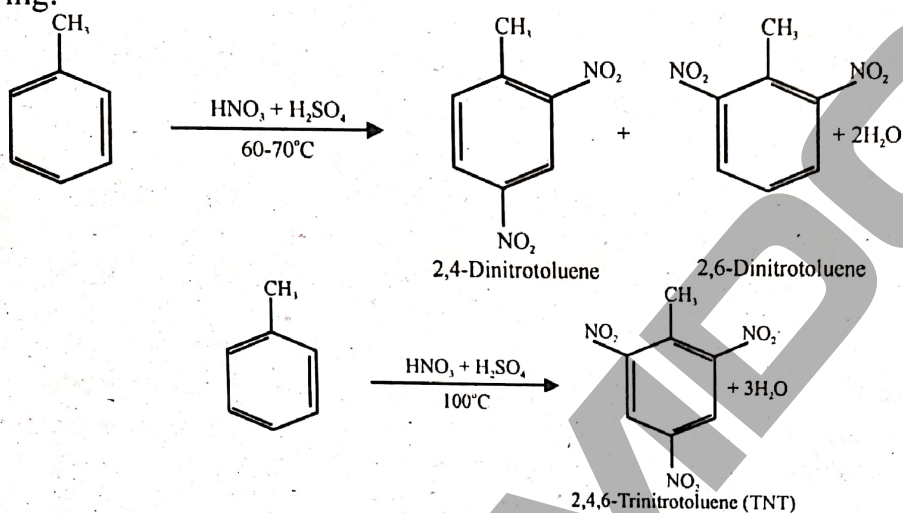
1- Ortho and para-directing groups 2-Meta-directing groups

1. Ortho and para directing groups (2,4-directing group):

- These groups release electrons to the benzene ring thereby facilitating the availability of electrons to the electrophiles at ortho and para positions.
- This results in the increased chemical reactivity of benzene ring towards electrophiles.
- The benzene ring can offer more than one positions (ortho and para) to the new incoming groups. These groups are called ortho and para directing groups.



- The electron releasing effect of methyl group is significant and it makes the ring a good nucleophile. Due to this increased reactivity, more nitro groups can be substituted on benzene ring.



These groups are $-\ddot{\text{O}}\text{H}$, $-\ddot{\text{S}}\text{H}$, $-\ddot{\text{N}}\text{H}_2$, $-\ddot{\text{N}}\text{HR}$, $-\ddot{\text{N}}\text{R}_2$, $-\ddot{\text{O}}\text{CH}_3$, $-\ddot{\text{S}}\text{CH}_3$, $-\text{Cl}$, $-\text{Br}$, $-\text{I}$

2. Meta-Directing Groups (deactivators of benzene ring): 3, 5-directing groups

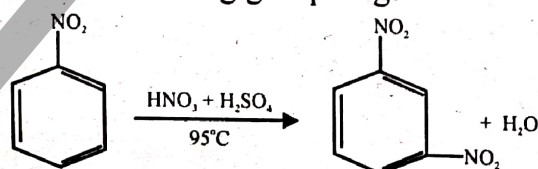
These groups withdraw electrons of the benzene ring towards themselves, thereby reducing the availability of electrons to the electrophiles at ortho and para positions.

This results in the decreased chemical activity of benzene.

Moreover, due to the electron withdrawing effect of such substituents, the ortho and para positions are rendered more electron deficient than the meta position.

Thus the incoming electrophile will prefer to attack on meta position rather than ortho and para positions.

These groups are called meta directing groups e.g.



These groups are $-\text{NO}_2$, $-\text{R}$, $-\text{NR}_3^+$, $-\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$, $-\text{COOH}$, $-\text{CHO}$, $-\text{COR}$, $-\text{NH}_3^+$, $-\text{CCl}_3$

COMPARISON OF REACTIVITIES OF ALKANE, ALKENE AND ALKYNE

Reactivity order of alkane, alkene and alkyne is as follows:

Alkene > Alkyne > Alkane

Alkenes: π -bond in alkene is not only weak but its electrons are more exposed to an electrophilic attack. Both these facts make alkene very reactive class of compounds.

Alkynes: Alkynes are less reactive than alkenes for electrophilic reagents although contain two π -bonds. This is because bond distance between two triply bonded carbon atoms is very short. As a result, its π -electrons are tightly bound and are not available for electrophilic attack. Hence, are less reactive than alkenes.

However, alkynes are more reactive than alkenes for nucleophilic reagents.

Alkane: Alkanes are least reactive due to the presence of σ -bonds. σ -bonds are stable because σ -electrons revolve around internuclear axis and are tightly bound between the nuclei. As a result, electrophiles cannot attack on them.

Carbon to carbon bond lengths:

- (i) C-C = 154pm (ii) C=C = 134pm (iii) C \equiv C = 120pm

COMPARISON OF REACTIVITIES OF ALKANES, ALKENES AND BENZENE

Alkanes are unreactive class of compounds and their unreactivity is due to their non-polar nature and inertness of σ -bond. But they undergo substitution reaction relatively easily involving free radicals.

Alkenes, are very reactive class of compounds and their reactivity is due to the inherent weakness of the π -bond and availability of π -electrons for the electrophilic reagent.

- They undergo electrophilic addition reactions easily.
- Relatively unstable, alkenes undergo polymerization reactions.
- They also undergo oxidation readily.

Benzene is unique in its behaviour.

- It is highly unsaturated compound but very stable molecule as well.
- Its stability is due to the extensive delocalization of π -electrons.
- It resembles alkenes when it gives addition reactions.
- Its substitution does not involve free radicals but follow electrophilic substitution reactions.
- It requires drastic conditions as compared to alkenes.
- It is also resistant to oxidation.

Some examples of comparison:

	Alkanes	Alkenes	Benzene
1. Structure	Open Chain	Open Chain	Closed Chain
2. Reactions			
(a) H ₂	No reaction	Addition reaction	Addition reaction
(b) Cl ₂	Photochemical Substitution	Addition	Photochemical Addition and electrophilic substitution
(c) KMnO ₄	No reaction	Colour of KMnO ₄ is discharged	No reaction

TOPIC-15 >> ALKYL HALIDES

COURSE CONTENTS

- Classification of alkyl halides
- Discuss structure and reactivity of alkyl halides
- Mechanism of nucleophilic substitution reaction (S_N1 , S_N2 reaction)
- Elimination reactions (E_1 and E_2 reaction)

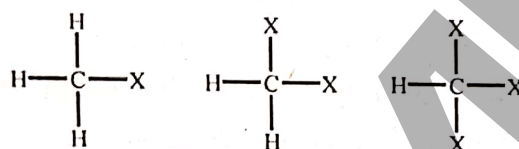
INTRODUCTION

Definition:

Alkyl halides are the compounds in which one hydrogen atom of alkanes has been replaced by one halogen atom. They are also known as halogen derivatives of alkanes.

Types:

They may be mono, di, tri or poly haloalkanes depending upon the number of halogen atoms present in the molecule. Monohaloalkanes are called alkyl halides having general formula R-X.



Monohaloalkane

Dihaloalkane

Trihaloalkane

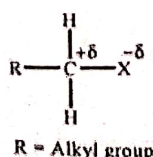
CLASSIFICATION OF ALKYL HALIDES

Alkyl halides are classified into primary, secondary and tertiary alkyl halides.

Primary alkyl halide	Secondary alkyl halide	Tertiary alkyl halide
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Alkyl halides in which halogen atom is attached with primary carbon are called primary alkyl halides. Carbon atom attached to one or no carbon atom is called primary C-atom. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Alkyl halide in which halogen atom is attached with a secondary carbon atom is called secondary alkyl halide. C-atom, attached to two C-atoms simultaneously is called secondary C-atom. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Alkyl halides, in which halogen atom is attached to a tertiary carbon is called tertiary alkyl halide. C-atom, attached to three C-atoms simultaneously is called tertiary C-atom.
Example: $\text{*CH}_3\text{-Cl}$, $\text{CH}_3\text{-*CH}_2\text{-Cl}$ *C is a primary carbon atom	CH_3 $\text{H}_3\text{C-*C-Cl}$ H Isopropyl chloride 2-chloropropane *C is a secondary carbon atom	$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ \\ \text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{Cl} \\ \\ \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$ t-Butyl chloride 2-Methyl-2-chloropropane * = Tertiary carbon atom

STRUCTURE

- The alkyl halide functional group consists of a sp^3 hybridized C atom bonded to a halogen (X) via σ bond.
- The carbon halogen bonds are typically quite polar due to the electronegativity and polarizability of the halogen.



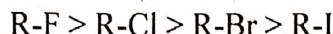
REACTIVITY

There are two main factors which control the reactivity of alkyl halides:

- (i) Bond polarity of C-X bond
- (ii) Bond energy of C-X bond

(i) Bond Polarity

The molecule of alkyl halide is polarized due to the greater electronegativity of halogens as compared to carbon. Carbon acquires partial positive whereas halogens acquires partial negative charge. Halogen becomes nucleophilic and can be replaced by another nucleophiles. On the basis of bond polarity, reactivity of alkyl halides decreases in the following order,

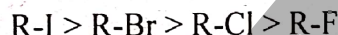


Atom	Electronegativity	Atom	Electronegativity
F	4.0	I	2.5
Cl	3.0	H	2.1
Br	2.8	C	2.5

(ii) Bond Energy

Experiments have shown that the bond energy of C-X bond is the main factor which decides the reactivity of alkyl halides, and not the polarity of the molecule.

A study of bond energies of C-X bond shows that C-F bond is the strongest. So, the overall order of reactivity of alkyl halides is:



In fact the C-F bond is so strong that alkyl fluorides do not react under ordinary conditions.

Bond	Bond energy (kJ/mole)
C - F	467
C - H	413
C - Cl	346
C - Br	290
C - I	228

NUCLEOPHILIC SUBSTITUTION REACTIONS OF ALKYL HALIDES

Nucleophile:

A nucleophile is electron rich species.

- It will react with an electron poor species.
- It has an unshared pair of electrons available for bonding.
- In most cases it is basic.
- It may be negatively charged or neutral.

Examples:

HO^- , $C_2H_5O^-$, SCN^- , HS^- , H_2O , NH_2^- , Cl^- , Br^- , I^- , NH_3 etc.

Electrophile:

An electrophile is electron deficient species.

- It will react with an electron rich species.
- It has empty orbitals available for bonding.
- In most cases it is acidic.
- It may be positively charged or neutral.
- The electrophilic C can be recognized by looking for the polar sigma bond due to the presence of an electronegative substituent (esp. C-Cl, C-Br, C-I and C-O).

Examples:

BF_3 , $AlCl_3$, $FeCl_3$, carbocation like CH_3^+ etc.

Substitution:

A substitution implies that one group replaces another in a molecule.

Substrate:

The alkyl halide molecule on which nucleophile attacks is called substrate. Alkyl chlorides, bromides and iodides are good substrates for nucleophilic substitution reactions.

Leaving Group (LG):

Leaving group is also a nucleophile. It departs with an unshared pair of electrons.

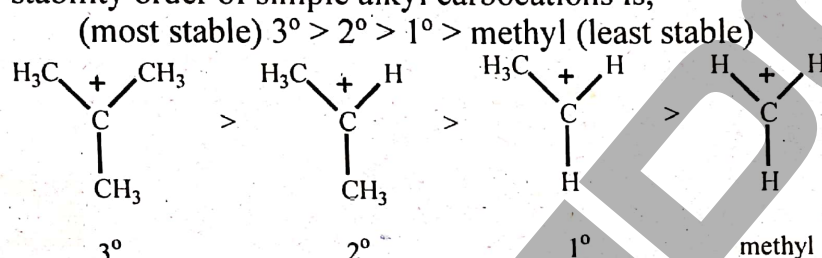
- The incoming nucleophile must be stronger than the departing one, Cl^- , Br^- , I^- , HSO_4^- are good leaving groups. Poor leaving groups are OH^- , RO^- and NH_2^- .
- Iodide ion is a good nucleophile as well as a good leaving group.

Carbocations:

The species in which one carbon atom is positively charged is called carbocation. It can be primary, secondary or tertiary.

Stability of carbocations:

The general stability order of simple alkyl carbocations is,



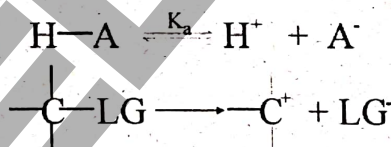
This is because alkyl groups are weakly electron donating due to hyperconjugation and inductive effects. Resonance effects can further stabilize carbocations when present.

Reactions involving carbocations:

- Substitutions via the $\text{S}_\text{N}1$
- Eliminations via the E_1
- Additions to alkenes and alkynes

Bronsted acid dissociation and $\text{S}_\text{N}1$ reaction:

These two equations represent Bronsted acid dissociation and loss of a leaving group in a $\text{S}_\text{N}1$ type reaction.

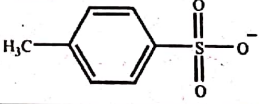
**Similarities:**

- Both show heterolytic cleavage of a sigma bond to create an anion and a cation.
- For acidity, the more stable A^- is, then the more the equilibrium will favour dissociation, and release of protons meaning that HA is more acidic.

For the leaving group, the more stable LG^- is, the more it favors "leaving".

- Hence factors that stabilize A^- also apply to the stabilization of a LG^- .

Common leaving groups:

Excellent	 , NH_3
Very good	I^- , H_2O
Good	Br^-
Fair	Cl^-
Poor	F^-
Very poor	OH^- , NH_2^- , RO^-

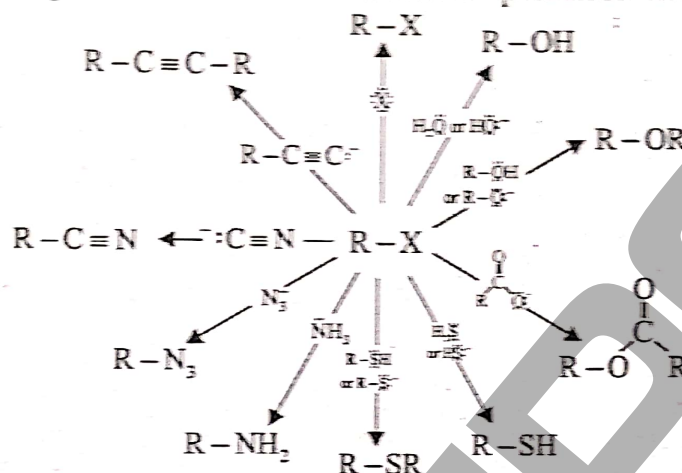
But water itself is a good leaving group, since it is the conjugate base of H_3O^+ .

Importance of nucleophilic substitution reactions:

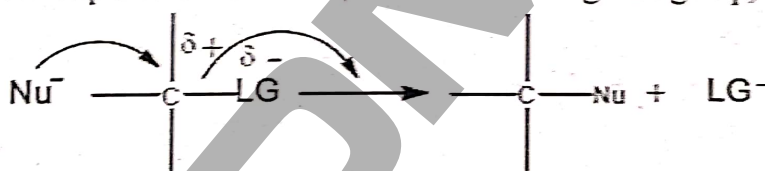
Nucleophilic substitution reactions are an important class of reactions that allow the interconversion of functional groups. A variety of nucleophiles can be used to generate a range of new functional groups.

Examples:

The following diagram reflects some of the more important reactions you may encounter.

**NUCLEOPHILIC SUBSTITUTION REACTIONS****Nucleophilic substitution reactions:**

Nucleophilic substitution reactions occur when an electron rich species, the nucleophile, reacts at an electrophilic C atom attached to an electronegative group, the leaving group.

**MECHANISMS FOR NUCLEOPHILIC SUBSTITUTION REACTIONS**

There are two fundamental events in a nucleophilic substitution reaction:

- o Formation of the new σ bond to the nucleophiles
- o Breaking of the σ bond to the leaving group

Depending on the relative timing of these events, two different mechanisms are possible:

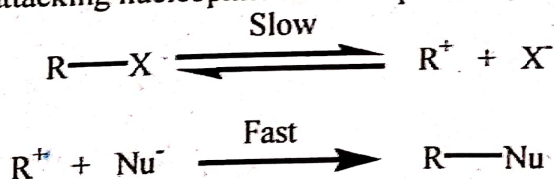
- o Bond breaking to form a carbocation proceeds the formation of the new bond: S_N1 reaction
- o Simultaneous bond formation and bond breaking: S_N2 reaction

 S_N1 MECHANISM:

It is substitution nucleophilic unimolecular two step reaction.

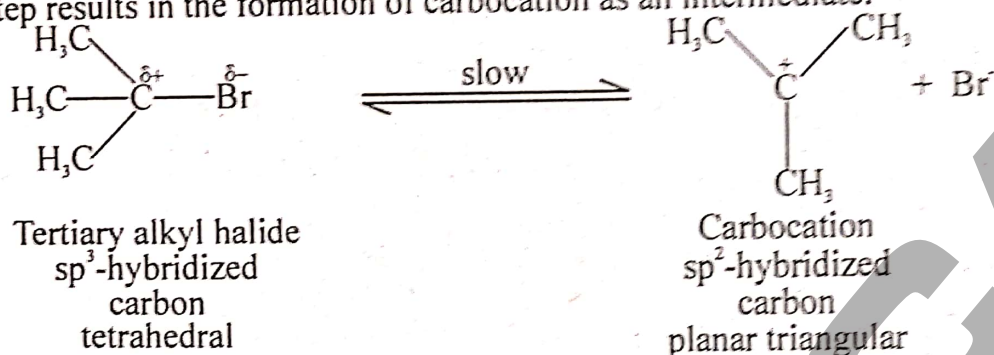
Explanation:

The substrate $R-X$ first ionizes reversibly into R^+ and X^- ions. Then the carbonium ion combines with the attacking nucleophiles to form product.



Step 1:

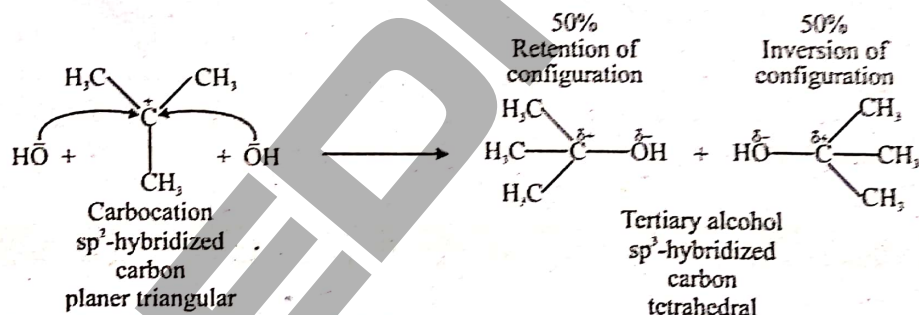
- This step involves the ionization of tertiary alkyl halide in the presence of polar solvent.
- This step is reversible in the presence of aqueous acetone or aqueous ethyl alcohol.
- This step results in the formation of carbocation as an intermediate.



- This step involves the breakage of covalent bond, so it is a slow step. This step is rate determining step.
- During this step, there is variation in hybridization from tetrahedral sp^3 to planar triangular sp^2 .

Step 2:

- This step involves the attack of nucleophile on carbocation
- (i) The nucleophile attacks when the leaving group had already gone. So, the question of the direction of the attack does not arise.
- (ii) The intermediate carbocation is a planar species allowing the nucleophile to attack on it from both the directions with equal ease. Therefore, there is 50% inversion of configuration and 50% retention of configuration.



The brief mechanistic picture of $\text{S}_\text{N}1$ reaction base upon the following evidences:

Kinetic Evidence:

The rate of an $\text{S}_\text{N}1$ reaction depends upon the concentration of alkyl halide only. The change in concentration of attacking nucleophile has no effect on the rate.

$$\text{Rate} = k [\text{R-X}]$$

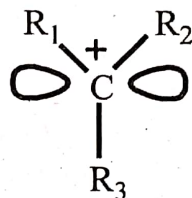
It is because the nucleophile combines with the carbonium ion in the second step. For the same reason, the rate of an $\text{S}_\text{N}1$ reaction does not depend on the nature of attacking nucleophile.

Stereo Chemical Evidence:

Experiments have shown that $\text{S}_\text{N}1$ reaction occur with partial racemization. The extent of partial racemization depends upon several factors including stability of carbonium ion.

Racemization:

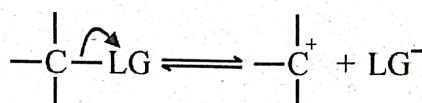
The carbon atom of carbonium ion is sp^2 hybridized and carries one empty p-orbital. The nucleophile can attach itself to the p-orbital either on the right or on the left side of carbon with equal ease. The expected product is a racemic mixture and optically inactive.

**Partial racemization:**

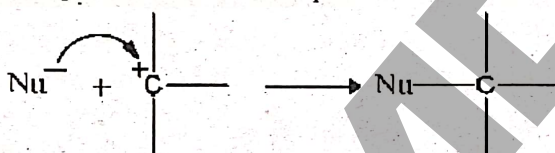
In case of unstable carbonium ion, the side of leaving group is somewhat shielded. The attack of nucleophile occurs more often on the side opposite to the leaving group, leading to partial inversion of configuration. Therefore, the product has some optical activity.

Step 1:

Slow loss of the leaving group, LG, to generate a carbocation intermediate, then

**Step 2:**

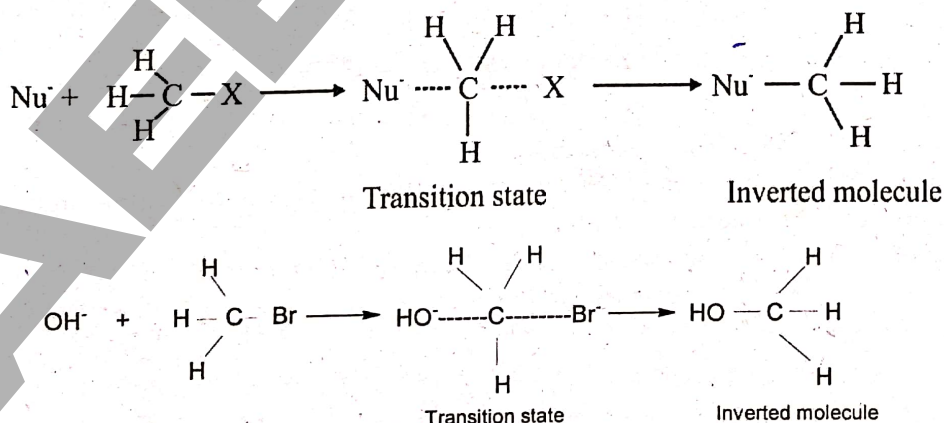
Rapid attack of a nucleophile on the electrophilic carbocation to form a new σ bond.

**SN₂ MECHANISM:**

It is substitution nucleophilic bimolecular reaction. It occurs in one step.

**Mechanism:**

The attack of nucleophile on carbon and the departure of the halide ion take place simultaneously in single step. This is rate-determining step because the bond breaking and bond making processes occur simultaneously. Since two molecules are undergoing change in covalency in rate determining step. It is a bimolecular nucleophilic substitution reaction which is taking place in one step.



This is based upon the following evidences.

(1) Kinetic Evidence:

The rate of an S_N2 reaction depends upon the concentration of nucleophile as well as the concentration of alkyl halide. The rate expression for the reaction can be written as,

$$\text{Rate} = k [\text{Nu}] [\text{R-X}]$$

Where k is specific rate constant

This means that the rate of reaction will be double if the concentration of any of the two is double e.g., the rate of following reaction increases when conc. of either OH^- or $\text{CH}_3 - \text{Br}$ is increased.

**(2) Stereo-chemical Evidence:**

A bimolecular nucleophilic substitution always occurs with inversion of configuration. The carbon atom in transition state is sp^2 -hybridized and is planar. The attacking nucleophile and the leaving group are present in the transition state on opposite sides of electrophilic carbon atom.

Comparison of S_N1 and S_N2 Mechanisms:

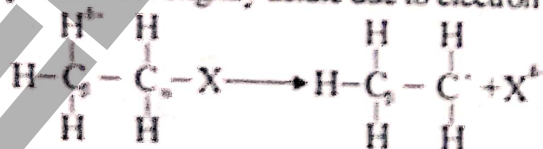
S_N1 reaction		S_N2 reaction	
1	It is a two steps mechanism.	1	It is a single step mechanism.
2	First step is slow one and second is fast.	2	It has only one step that is slow.
3	It is a unimolecular reaction.	3	It is a bimolecular reaction.
4	It is favoured in polar solvents.	4	It is favoured in non-polar solvents.
5	Mostly tertiary alkyl halides show this reaction.	5	Mostly primary alkyl halides show this reaction.
6	50% inversion and 50% retention of configuration takes place.	6	100% inversion of configuration takes place.
7	Rate = $k [\text{R-X}]$	7	Rate = $k [\text{Nu}] [\text{R-X}]$

ELIMINATION REACTIONS

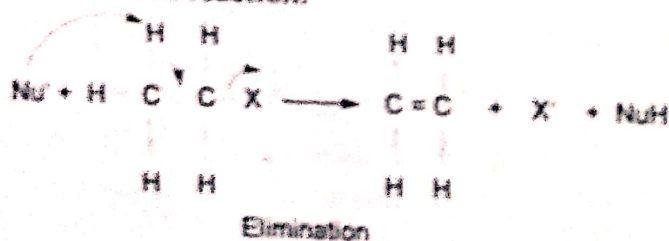
The chemical reaction in which two groups are eliminated from two adjacent atoms is called elimination reaction. Since β -hydrogen is necessary for eliminations, it is also called β -elimination.

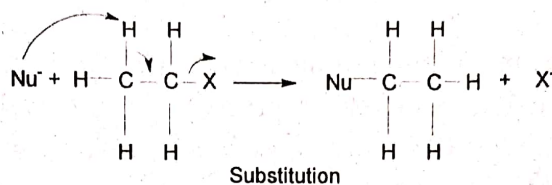
Explanation:

β -hydrogen atom in alkyl halides is slightly acidic due to electron withdrawing effect of halogen.

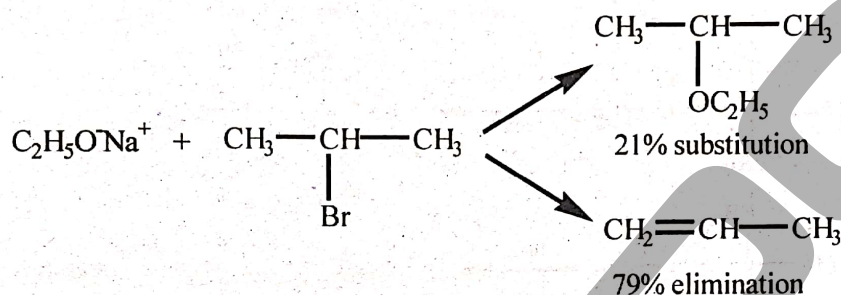
**Substitution and elimination reactions:**

The attacking nucleophile can either attack α -carbon to give substitution product or β -hydrogen to give elimination reaction.





Strong bases such as OH^- , RO^- , NH_2^- etc cause elimination in preference to substitution. Highly polarizable nucleophile and weak bases such as I^- , RS^- etc give substitution reactions.

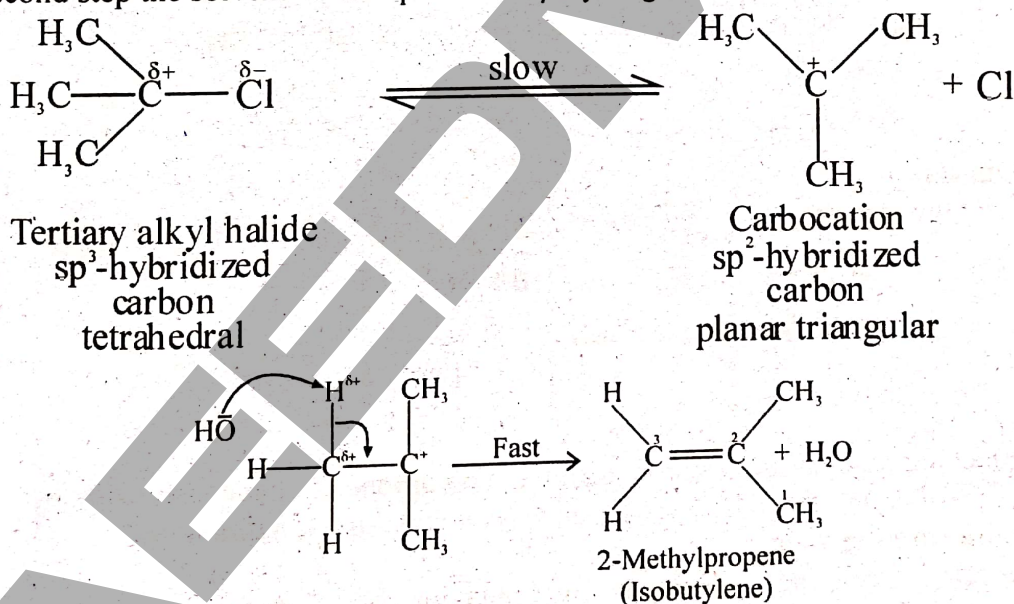


E₁ MECHANISM:

It is unimolecular two step elimination reactions.

Explanation:

The substrate undergoes slow ionization in the first step to form carbonium ion and in the second step the solvent or base pulls off a β -hydrogen.



Molecularity:

Since only one molecule is undergoing a change in the rate determining step, i.e., first step, this is two step unimolecular elimination reactions.

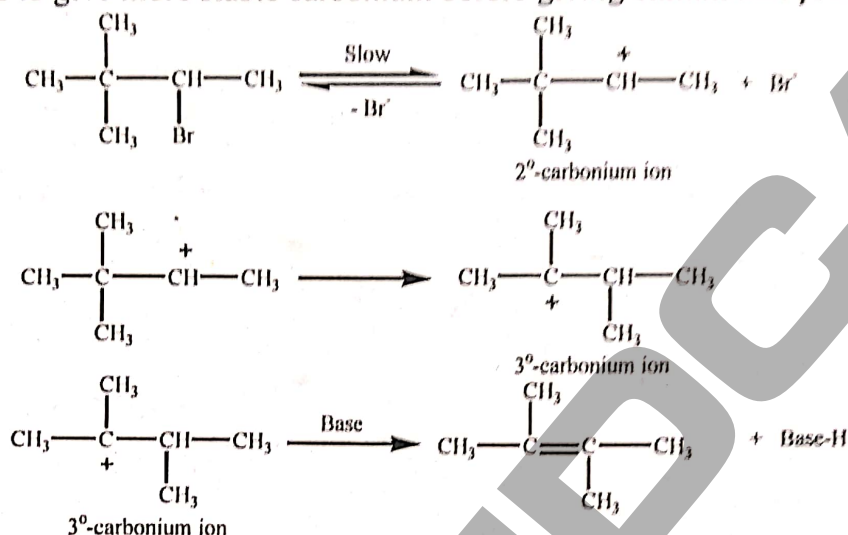
First order kinetics:

The E₁-mechanism has been supported by the study of the reaction. It follows first order kinetics, in which rate of reaction depends only on the concentration of substrate.

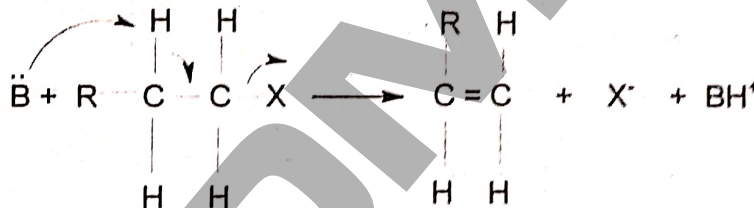
$$\text{Rate} = k [\text{R-X}]$$

Carbonium ion:

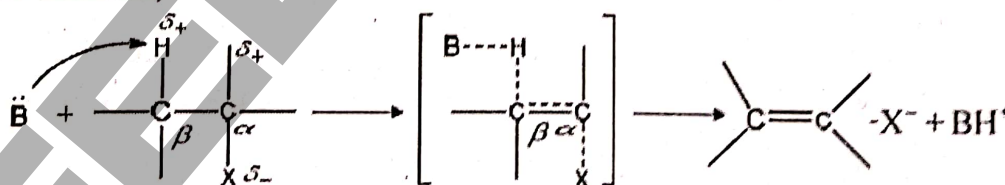
The presence of carbonium ion as an intermediate has been indicated by the presence of more than one kind of elimination products. A relatively less stable carbonium ion rearranges to give more stable carbonium before giving elimination product.

**E₂ Mechanism:**

It is bimolecular one step elimination reaction.

**Explanation:**

Consider the reaction,



The attacking base removes a proton from the β -carbon simultaneously with the formation of double bond between C_α and C_β and the loss of halide ions.

Rate determining step:

This is rate determining step because bond breaking and bond making processes are taking place simultaneously.

Molecularity:

Since two molecules are undergoing a change in transition state, it is a bimolecular one step elimination reaction.

Steps:

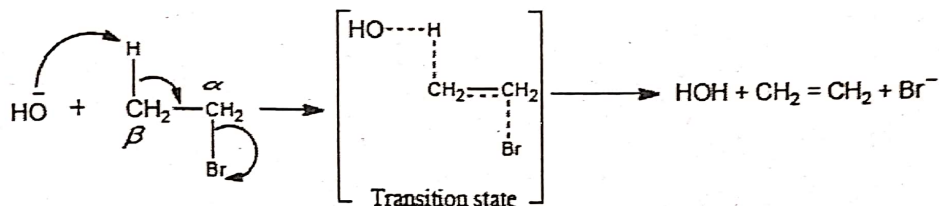
Thus E_2 is a one step process in which both the substrate and the base participate.

Second order kinetics:

The observed rate law for E_2 -reaction is

$$\text{Rate} = k [\text{R-X}] [\text{Base}]$$

The rate of E₂-reaction depends upon the concentration of substrate and the base e.g., for the reaction,



The rate of reaction follows second order kinetics.

$$\text{Rate} = k [\text{CH}_3\text{-CH}_2\text{-Br}] [\text{OH}^-]$$

Substitution versus Elimination Reactions

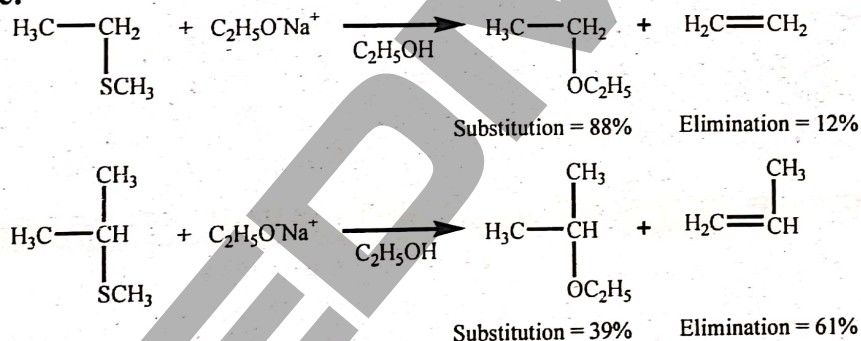
Though substitution and elimination reaction lead to different products, there is always a competition between them because of close resemblance in their mechanism. Since substitution is more favorable energetically it is the dominant reaction in the substitution-elimination reaction. Elimination occurs only in the presence of β -hydrogen where substitution reactions do not require this condition to be satisfied.

The following factors help to compare these two pathways:

(i) Structure of Substrate:

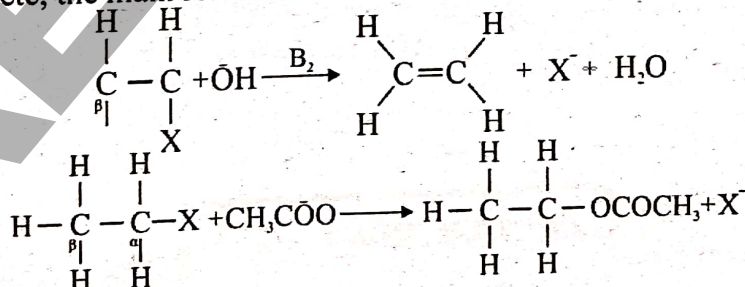
Crowding within the substrate favours elimination over substitution because the approach of the nucleophile to α -carbon is difficult for substitution. However, the elimination is favorable because the removal of β -H atom by base from tertiary planar carbonium ion is easy.

Example:



(ii) Nature of Base:

When the electron pair donor is a strong base, e.g., OH^- , OR^- etc., the dominant reaction is E₂ and S_N2 reaction is a side reaction. However, when the nucleophile is a weak base like X^- , RS^- , etc, the main reaction will be S_N2 and E₂ will be minor side reaction.



The Nature of Leaving Group:

The role of leaving groups in Elimination reactions is similar to that in substitution reactions.

In unimolecular reactions it does not affect the mechanism because both the elimination and substitution products are decided with carbonium ion.

However, in the bimolecular reactions the nature of product greatly depends upon the nature of leaving group.

Example:



X=Br

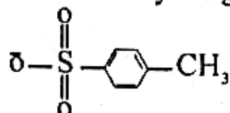
85%

15%

X=OTS = Tosylate group

1%

99%



Nature of Solvent

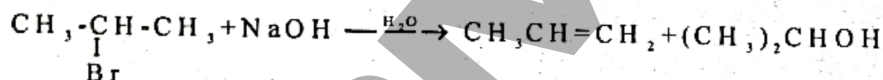
Elimination is favored more than substitution by decreasing the solvent polarity. Thus alcoholic KOH affects elimination while more polar aqueous

KOH is used for substitution. E₁ is favored by polar solvents like S_N1 reaction. In non-polar solvents, the reaction will follow E₂-mechanism.

Effect of Temperature

An increase in temperature will favor elimination more than substitution, because substitution reaction involve less reorganization of bonds as compared to eliminations.

Example:



at 45°C

53%

47%

at 100°C

64%

36%

E1 Reactions	E2 Reactions
Two steps mechanism	One step mechanism
Molecularity is one	Molecularity is two
Rate $\propto [\text{R-X}]$ Rate = $k[\text{R-X}]$	Rate $\propto [\text{R-X}] [\text{Base}]$ Rate = $k[\text{R-X}] [\text{Base}]$
Tertiary alkyl halides generally give E ₁ reactions.	Primary alkyl halides generally give E ₂ reactions.
Order of reaction is one.	Order of reaction is two.
The reaction is: $\text{R-X} \xrightarrow{\text{Slow}} \text{carbocation} + \text{X}^-$ Carbocation + Base $\xrightarrow{\text{fast}} \text{alkene} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	The reaction is: $\text{R-X} + \text{OH}^- \xrightarrow{\text{slow}} \text{Alkene} + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{X}^-$

CRITICAL THINKING?

- Q.1 Primary R-X treated with aq KOH will give alcohols under ____ mechanism
- A. S_N1
B. S_N2
C. E₁
D. E₂

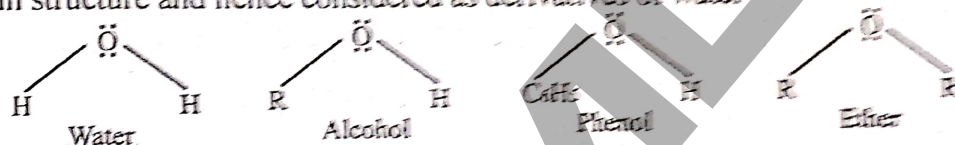
TOPIC-16 ALCOHOLS AND PHENOLS

COURSE CONTENTS

- Classification: Primary, Secondary and Tertiary alcohols
- Reactivity
- Phenols
- Physical properties
- Acidity
- Reactivity
- Differentiate between alcohol and phenol

INTRODUCTION

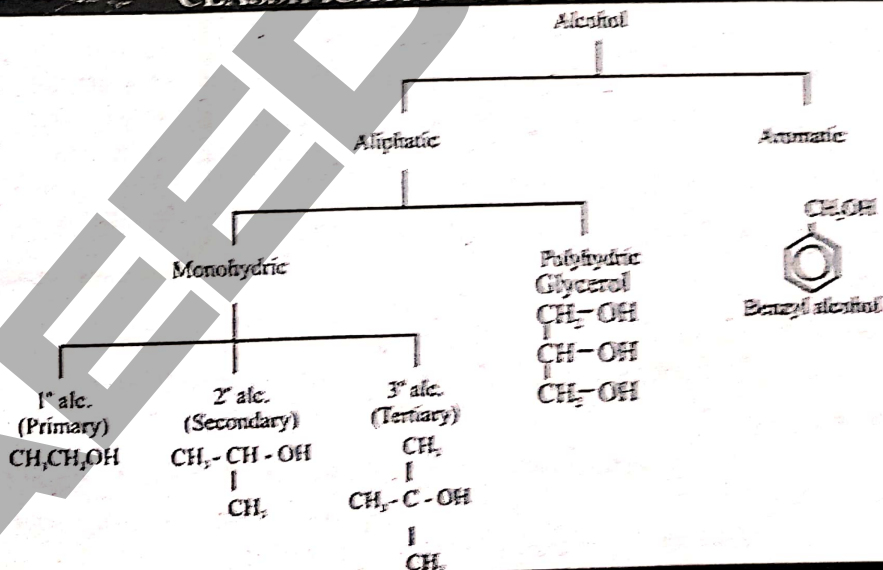
- Alcohols, phenols and ethers are classes of organic compounds which are much closer to water in structure and hence considered as derivatives of water



- When H of alkane is replaced by $-\text{OH}$ group, then it is called alcohol.
- When the H of benzene ring is replaced by $-\text{OH}$ group, then it is called phenol.
- The linkage between two carbon atoms through oxygen atom is called ether.

ALCOHOLS

CLASSIFICATION OF ALCOHOLS



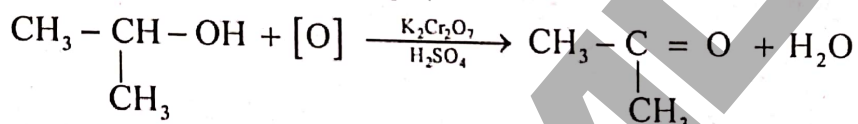
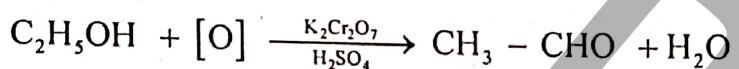
REACTIONS OF ALCOHOLS

Reactivity of $-\text{OH}$ group

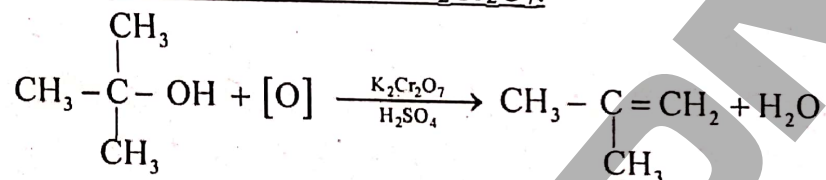
- Oxygen atom of the $-\text{OH}$ group in alcohols is sp^3 hybridized
- The carbon oxygen bond (C-O) and hydrogen oxygen bond (O-H) are highly polarized.
- The negative charge is present on the oxygen atom of alcohol.

Chemical properties

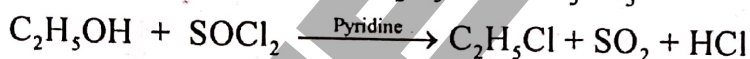
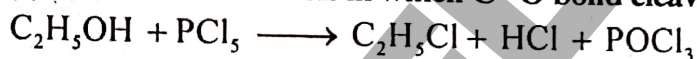
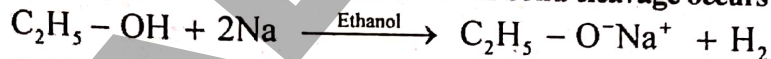
- Alcohols react with other reagents in two ways.
 - Reactions in which C-O bond breaks.
 - Reactions in which O-H bond breaks.
- The order of reactivity of alcohols when C-O bond breaks**
Tertiary alcohol > Secondary alcohol > Primary alcohol
- The order of reactivity of alcohols when O-H bond breaks**
CH₃OH > Primary alcohol > Secondary alcohol > Tertiary alcohol
- Nucleophile breaks C-O bond of alcohol.
- Attacking electrophile breaks O-H bond of alcohol.
- Catalytic oxidation of primary alcohol and secondary alcohol in presence of K₂Cr₂O₇ and H₂SO₄, converts them into aldehydes and ketones respectively; while same reaction of tertiary alcohol gives alkenes.
- On heating with H₂SO₄ (conc.), alcohol changes to alkene.

(i) Oxidation of alcohol:

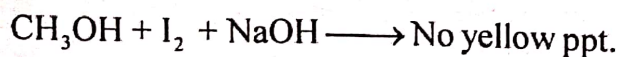
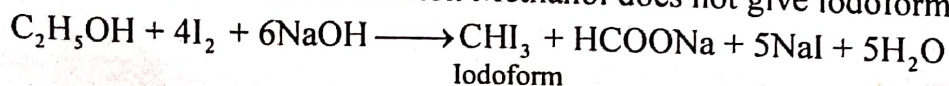
NOTE: Tertiary alcohols resist to oxidation instead they show elimination reaction in the presence of acidified K₂Cr₂O₇.

**CRITICAL CONCEPT!**

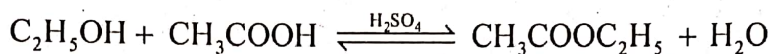
O-atom of the -OH group in alcohols is sp³ hybridized. The carbon oxygen bond (C-O) and (O-H) are highly polarized. The negative charge is present on the oxygen atom of alcohol.

(ii) Reactions of alcohols in which C-O bond cleavage occurs**(iii) Reactions of alcohols in which O-H bond cleavage occurs****(iv) Iodoform test:**

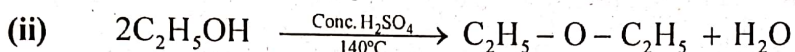
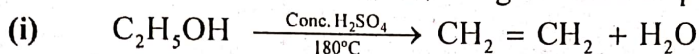
Ethanol gives iodoform with iodine in the presence of NaOH. Formation of yellow crystals indicates that the alcohol is ethanol. Methanol does not give iodoform test

**(v) Esterification**

It is nucleophilic substitution reaction with respect to carboxylic acid. Here -OH group of carboxylic acid is replaced by RO- (alkoxide) group of alcohol

**(vi) Dehydration**

Alcohols react with conc. H_2SO_4 and give different products at different temperature.



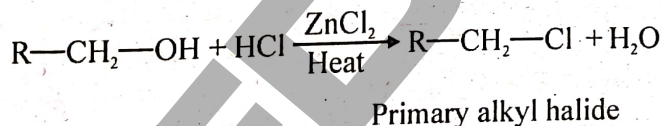
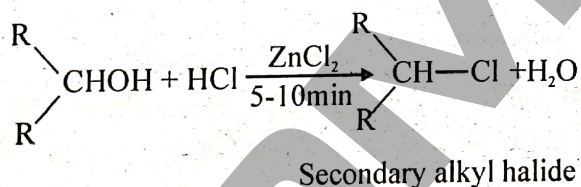
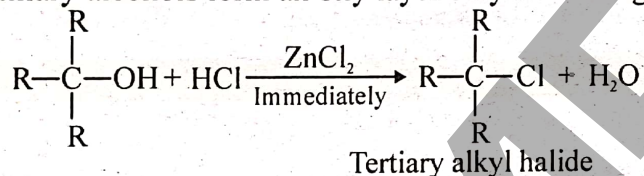
Methanol does not produce any alkene on reaction with conc. H_2SO_4 because methanol has no β -hydrogen. Therefore, β -elimination reaction does not take place.

Distinction between primary, secondary, and tertiary alcohols

Primary, secondary, and tertiary alcohols are identified and distinguished by their reactivity with halogen acids in the presence of anhydrous ZnCl_2 .

For example when alcohol is treated with a solution of ZnCl_2 in conc. HCl , then if

- (i) Tertiary alcohol form an oily layer immediately.
- (ii) Secondary alcohols forms an oily layer in five to ten minutes.
- (iii) Primary alcohols form an oily layer only on heating.

**CRITICAL THINKING?**

Q.1 Which bond is most polar in ethanol, $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$

- A. C-H
C. C-O

- B. O-H
D. C-C

PHENOLS**Phenol**

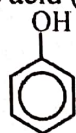
Aromatic compounds which contain one or more $-\text{OH}$ groups directly attached with carbon of benzene ring are called phenols.

Physical properties:

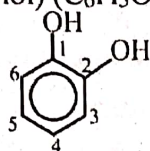
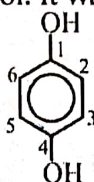
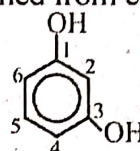
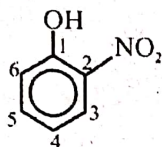
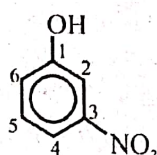
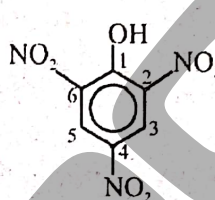
- It is colorless, crystalline, deliquescent solid with characteristic smell (phenolic odour)
- Its melting point is 41°C and boiling point 182°C .
- It is sparingly soluble in water forming pink solution at room temperature but completely soluble above 68.5°C .
- It is poisonous and used as a disinfectant in hospitals and washrooms.

Simplest Phenol

Carbolic acid (benzenol) (C_6H_5OH) is phenol. It was first obtained from coaltar by Runge in 1834.



Phenol

1,2-Dihydroxy benzene
o-Hydroxyl phenol
(catechol)1,4-Dihydroxy benzene
p-hydroxy phenol
(hydroquinone)1,3-Dihydroxy benzene
m-dihydroxy phenol
(resorcinol)2-Nitrophenol
o-Nitrophenol3-Nitrophenol
m-Nitrophenol2,4,6-Trinitrophenol
Picric acid**REACTIONS OF PHENOLS****Reactions of phenol**

Phenol shows two types of reactions

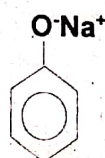
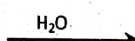
(i) Reaction of phenol due to -OH group

Nature of reaction	Remarks
Salt formation	Phenoxides are formed
Ester formation	Reaction takes place in basic media
Reduction with Zn	Benzene is obtained



Phenol

+ NaOH

Sodium
phenoxide+ H₂O

Phenol

+ Zn (dust)

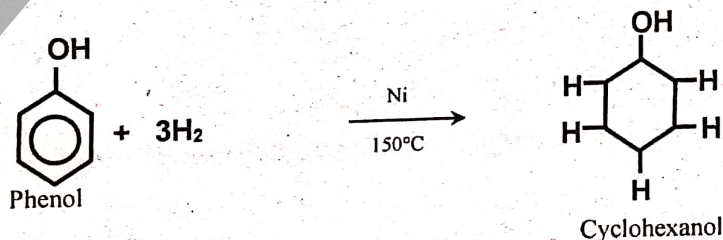
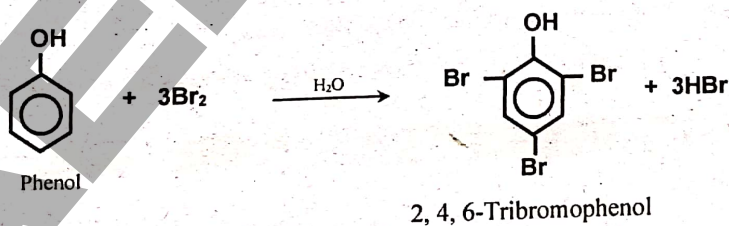
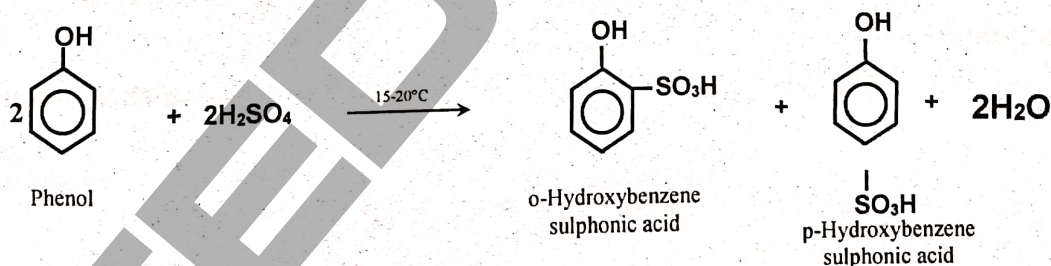
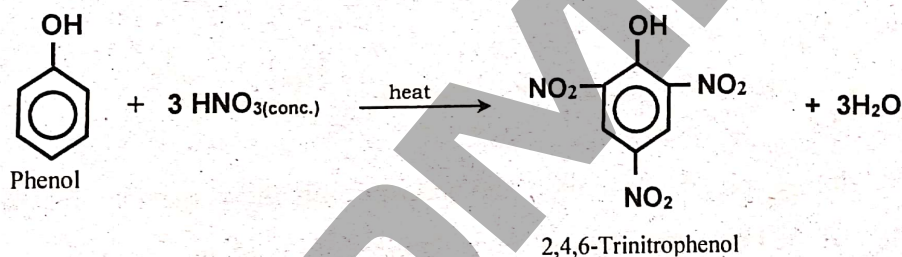
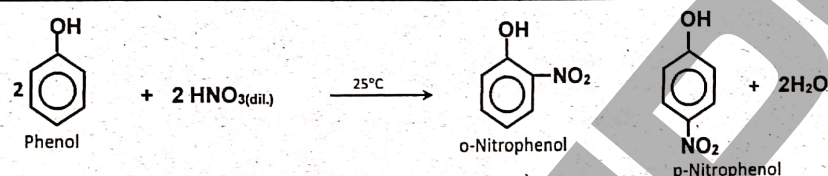


Benzene

+ ZnO

Reaction of Phenol Due to Benzene Ring

Reaction	Remarks
Nitration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> At room temperature, the product is a mixture of o- and p-nitrophenol with dil. HNO_3 At higher temperature, the product is picric acid with concentrated HNO_3
Sulphonation	Introduction of HSO_3^- is called sulphonation a mixture of ortho and para products at 15 to 20°C
Halogenation	White ppt. of 2,4,6-tribromophenol is obtained
Hydrogenation	Un-saturation of ring is removed
Reaction with formaldehyde	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This is a condensation polymerization of phenol Formaldehyde polymerizes with phenol to produce Bakelite. Bakelite is used for manufacturing of switch buttons



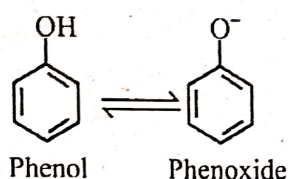
RELATIVE ACIDITY OF WATER, ETHANOL AND PHENOL

Phenol is:

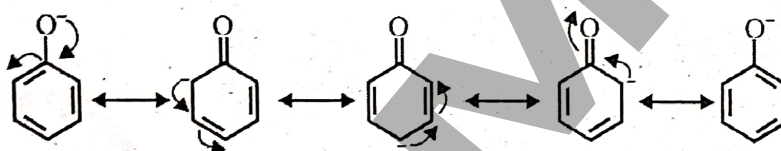
- Too weak to affect the litmus paper.
- Unable to evolve CO_2 from carbonates.
- Its K_a is 1.3×10^{-10} and pK_a is approximately 10.
- Acidic in nature.

Reason

The acidic nature of phenols, as compared to alcohols, can be attributed to the formation of stable phenoxide ions after loss of proton.



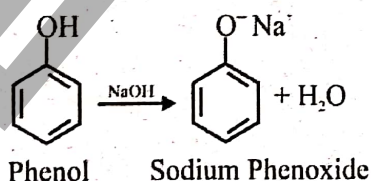
The phenoxide ion, thus formed is resonance stabilized.



The negative charge spreads throughout the benzene ring and is thereby dispersed. This delocalization of the charge accounts for the stability of the phenoxide ion.

Example:

Being acidic, phenol reacts with NaOH or Na metal to form salt, which shows that it is acidic in nature.



Relative acidic strength of alcohol, phenol, water and carboxylic acid is as follows:

Carboxylic acid > phenol > water > alcohol

Compound	Formula	K_a (approx)	pK_a
Phenol	Ar-OH	10^{-10}	10
Alcohols	R-OH	$10^{-16} - 10^{-18}$	16-18
Carboxylic acids	R-COOH	10^{-5}	5
Water	H-OH	10^{-14}	14

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ALCOHOLS AND PHENOL

ALCOHOLS	PHENOLS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The compounds in which hydroxyl group is attached to an alkyl group. ($R-OH$) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The compounds in which hydroxyl group is attached to an aryl group. ($Ar-OH$)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Alcohols are also called hydroxyl derivatives of alkanes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Phenols are called hydroxyl derivatives of benzene
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The compounds in which one hydrogen of water is replaced by an alkyl group e.g. CH_3-OH. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The compounds in which one hydrogen of water is replaced by an aryl group e.g.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The general formula of alcohols is $R-OH$. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The general formula of phenol is C_6H_5-OH. It is also known as carbolic acid.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Alcohols may be monohydric and polyhydric depending on the number of $-OH$ groups attached. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Phenols are not monohydric or polyhydric.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lower alcohols are generally colorless liquids. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> They are colorless, crystalline, deliquescent solid.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Alcohols have a characteristic sweet smell and burning taste. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> They have characteristic phenolic colour.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> They are readily soluble in water but solubility decreases in higher alcohols. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is sparingly soluble in water forming pink solution at room temperature but completely soluble above $68.5^\circ C$.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Alcohols react with other reagents in two ways <ol style="list-style-type: none"> In which $C-O$ bond breaks In which $O-H$ bond breaks. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Phenol react with other reagents in two ways <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Reactions due to $-OH$ group Reactions due to benzene ring.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Alkoxide ions have no resonance structures. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Phenolate have resonance structure.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Alcohols are less acidic. ($pK_a \approx 16-20$) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Phenols are acidic ($pK_a \approx 10$)

TOPIC-17 >> ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

COURSE CONTENTS

- Explain structure of aldehydes and ketones
- Preparation of aldehydes and ketones
- Reactivity of aldehydes and ketones and their comparison.
- Acid and base catalyzed nucleophilic addition reactions of aldehydes and ketones.
- Chemistry of aldehydes and ketones by their reduction to alcohols
- Oxidation reactions of aldehydes and ketones

INTRODUCTION

Organic compounds containing the carbonyl functional group, >C=O are called carbonyl compounds, they may be aldehydes and ketones.
Difference between aldehydes and ketones.

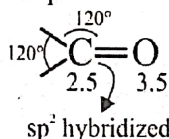
ALDEHYDES	KETONES
Functional Group In aldehydes, the "C" atom of carbonyl group is directly attached at least one H-atom	In ketones the "C" atom of carbonyl group is bonded to two carbon atoms, and so it occurs, within a chain
General formula The homologous series of aldehydes have general formula $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n}\text{O}$	The homologous series of ketones have general formula $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n}\text{O}$.
General formula structure An aldehyde may be represented by the general formula structure. $\text{R} - \overset{\text{O}}{\underset{\text{ }}{\text{C}}} - \text{H}$	A ketone may be represented by the general formula structure $\text{R} - \overset{\text{O}}{\underset{\text{ }}{\text{C}}} - \text{R}$
Occurrence Aldehyde groups are present in most sugars. They are main constituents of a number of essential oils used as fragrances and flavours.	Ketonic group is present in camphor and fructose.
Examples	
(i) $\text{H} - \overset{\text{O}}{\underset{\text{ }}{\text{C}}} - \text{H}$ Formaldehyde	(i) $\text{CH}_3 - \overset{\text{O}}{\underset{\text{ }}{\text{C}}} - \text{CH}_3$ Acetone
(ii) $\text{CH}_3 - \overset{\text{O}}{\underset{\text{ }}{\text{C}}} - \text{H}$ Acetaldehyde	(ii) $\text{CH}_3 - \overset{\text{O}}{\underset{\text{ }}{\text{C}}} - \text{CH}_2 - \text{CH}_3$ Ethyl methyl ketone

STRUCTURE OF ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

Carbonyl compounds

The organic compounds which contain carbonyl functional group ($>\text{C}=\text{O}$) in their molecules are called carbonyl compounds.

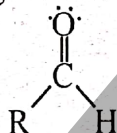
- In a carbonyl group, a carbon atom is bonded to oxygen with a double bond
- The homologous series of both aldehydes and ketones have the general formula, $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n}\text{O}$
- Aldehydes and Ketones are carbonyl compounds



- Due to difference in electronegativity between C and O, carbonyl group is polar

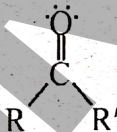
Aldehydes

- In aldehydes, the carbonyl group is bonded to at least one hydrogen atom and so it occurs at the end of the chain.
- An aldehyde can be represented by the general formula



Ketones

- In ketones, the carbonyl group is bonded to two carbon atoms and so it occurs within a chain.
- A ketone may be represented by the general formula



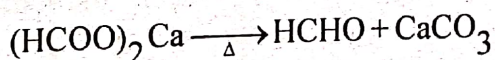
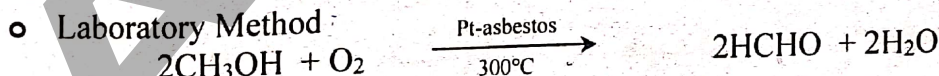
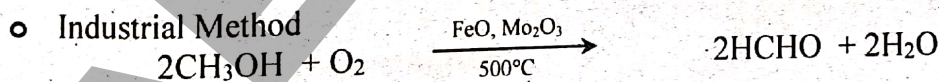
Where R and R' may be same or different but can never be H

PREPARATION OF ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

Formaldehyde

A mixture of 40% formaldehyde, 8% methyl alcohol and 52% water is known as formalin.

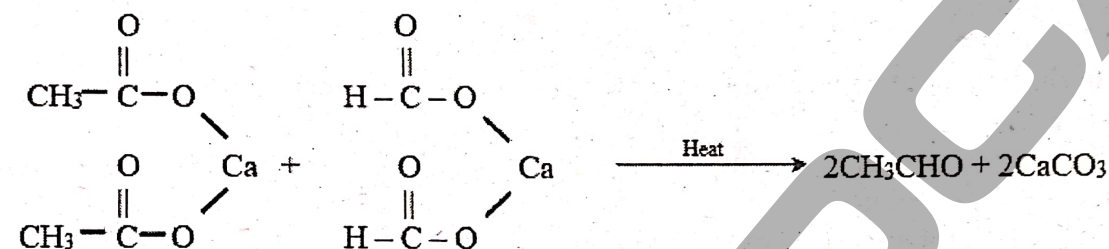
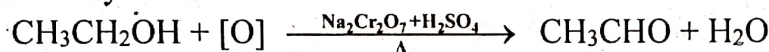
Industrial method	Laboratory method
By passing methanol vapours and air over iron oxide-molybdenum oxide or silver catalyst at 500°C	By passing methanol vapours and air over platinised asbestos or copper or silver catalyst at 300°C



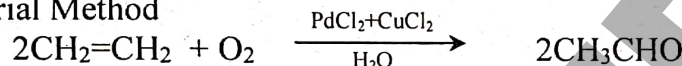
Acetaldehyde

Laboratory method	Industrial method
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> By oxidation of ethyl alcohol with acidified sodium dichromate By dry distillation of mixture of calcium salt of formic acid and acetic acid 	By oxidation of ethylene using palladium chloride catalyst with cupric chloride as promoter

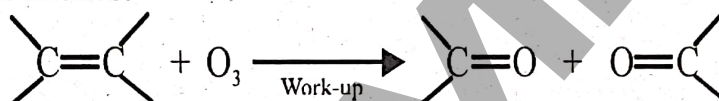
Laboratory Method



Industrial Method

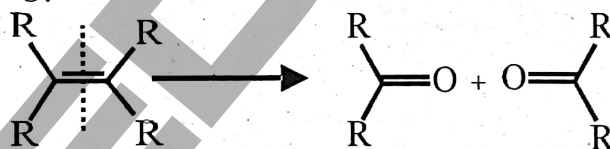


Ozonolysis of Alkenes:



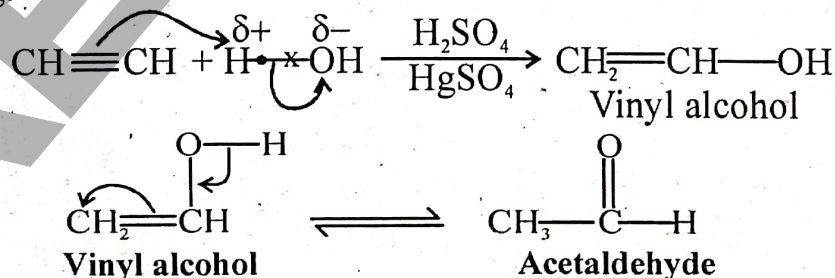
The overall transformation is: $\text{C}=\text{C}$ to $2\text{C}=\text{O}$

This reaction is carried out in presence of ozone, O_3 , followed by a reducing, in the presence of 'Zn, in acetic acid, the overall process is the cleaving of alkene in to two carbonyl compounds. If the substituents on $\text{C}=\text{C}$ are present, they are obtained in the carbonyl $\text{C}=\text{O}$.

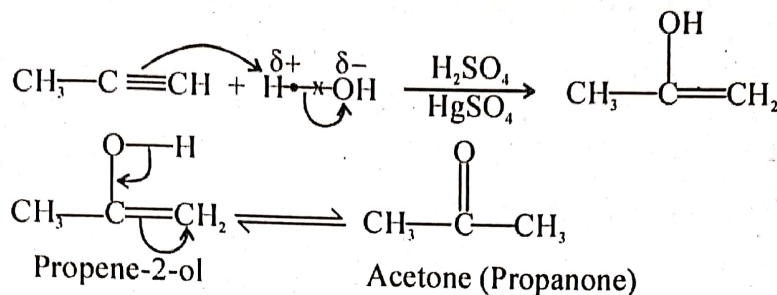


Hydration of Alkynes

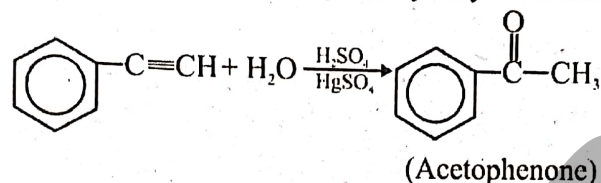
Water adds on to alkynes in the presence of dil. H_2SO_4 and HgSO_4 to, produce an aldehyde or ketone. Enol forms as intermediate, which isomerizes in to aldehydes or ketones e.g.



Propyne gives acetone



This reaction is useful for preparing methyl aryl ketones



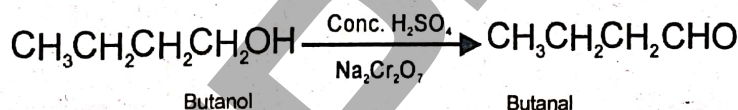
Oxidation of Primary and Secondary Alcohols

Primary alcohols are oxidized to aldehydes and secondary alcohols are oxidized to ketones, when they are treated with oxidizing agents. Following oxidizing agents are used.

- o Na or K dichromate solution in presence of conc. H_2SO_4 . ($\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ or $\text{Na}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7/\text{conc. H}_2\text{SO}_4$)

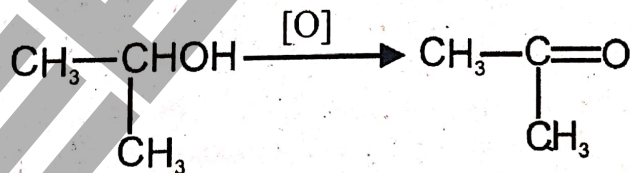
Example

Primary alcohols such as butanol or Benzyl alcohols are oxidized into butanal and benzaldehyde.



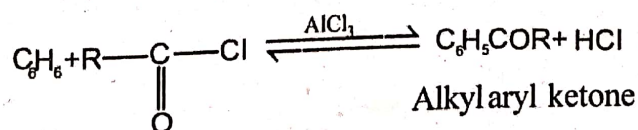
Non-aqueous solvents are used to control further oxidation of products obtained.

Secondary alcohols are oxidized into ketones.



Friedel-Craft's acylation of benzene

The substitution of an acyl group to an organic compound in the presence of AlCl_3 or some other Lewis acid. The AlCl_3 generate acylation ion (Electrophile) which is substituted in the aromatic ring.

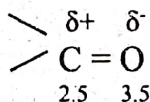


REACTIONS OF ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

Reactivity of carbonyl group

Reactivity of carbonyl group is due following reasons

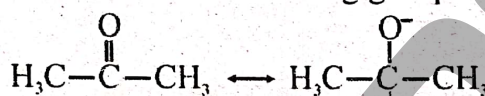
- Both carbon and oxygen are sp^2 hybridized. Reactivity of carbonyl group is due to the polarity of carbon and oxygen.



- Due to the presence of π -bond, it can undergo nucleophilic addition reaction.

Ketone are less reactive as compared to aldehydes because

- Electrophilic character of carbonyl carbon in ketones is less due to alkyl groups attached with carbonyl carbon which are the electron donating groups



- Ketones are less reactive due to steric hinderance

Nucleophilic addition reaction

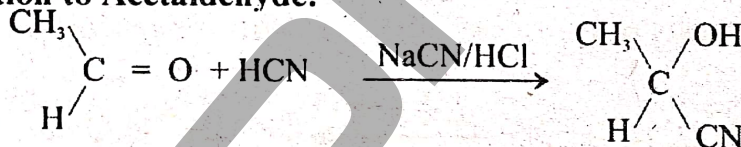
The characteristic reactions of carbonyl compounds are nucleophilic addition reactions.

(i) Base-Catalysed Addition Reactions

- This reaction will take place with strong nucleophilic reagent
- Base reacts with reagent and releases nucleophile

Addition of Hydrogen Cyanide

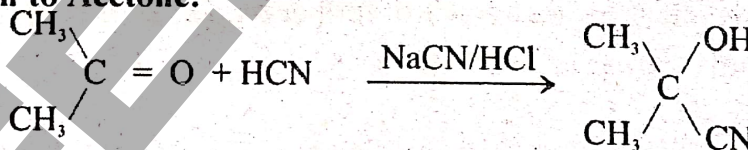
(i) Addition to Acetaldehyde:



Acetaldehyde

Acetaldehyde cyanohydrin

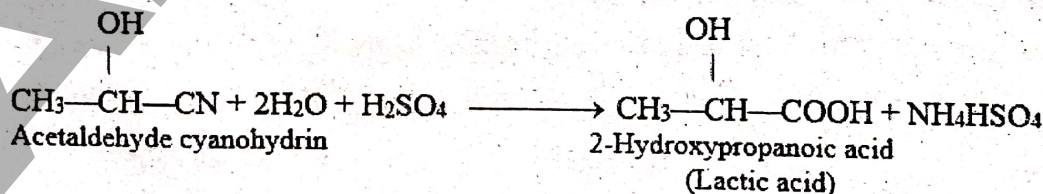
(ii) Addition to Acetone:



Acetone

Acetone cyanohydrin

The cyano group, $-\text{C} \equiv \text{N}$ is hydrolysed by an aqueous acid into α -hydroxy carboxylic acid through α -hydroxy acid amide.



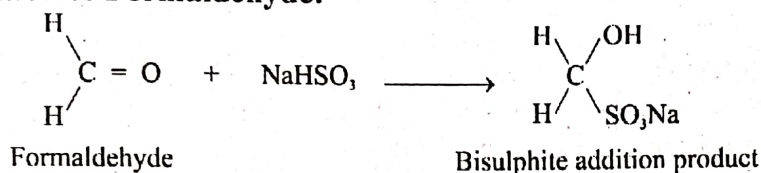
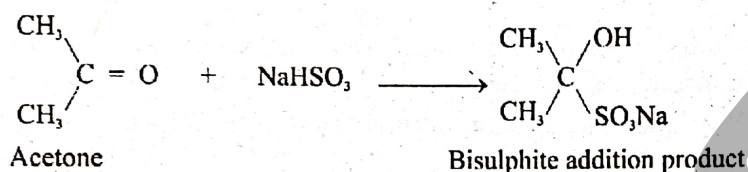
Addition of Grignard Reagents

On reacting with Grignard's reagent

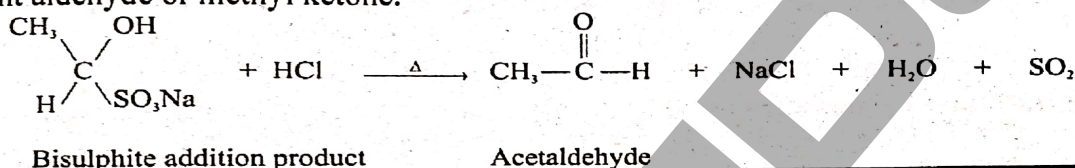
- Formaldehyde converts into primary alcohols
- Except formaldehyde all other aldehydes convert into secondary alcohols
- Ketones convert into tertiary alcohols

Addition of Sodium Bisulphite

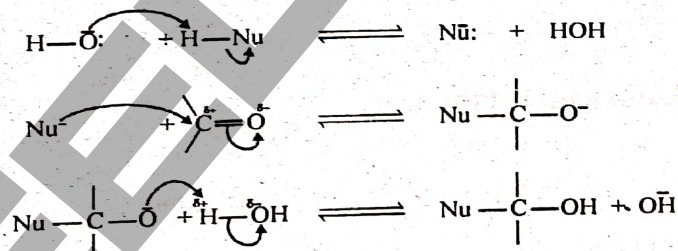
All aldehydes and only methyl ketones react with sodium bisulphite give white precipitate

(i) Addition to Formaldehyde:**(ii) Addition to Acetone:**

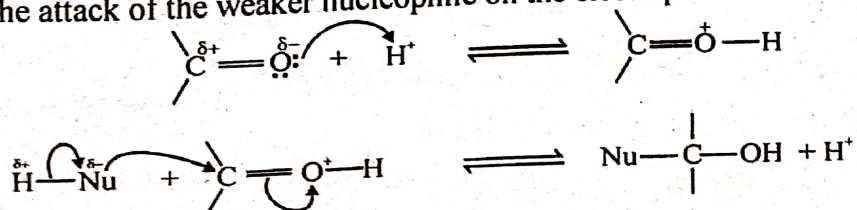
Bisulphite product on heating with a dilute mineral acid (HCl or H₂SO₄), regenerates the parent aldehyde or methyl ketone.

**NUCLEOPHILIC ADDITION REACTION MECHANISM****General mechanism of base-catalyzed addition reactions:**

- A base-catalyzed nucleophilic addition reaction will take place with a strong nucleophilic reagent.
- The base reacts with the reagent and generates the nucleophile.
- The addition is initiated by the attack of a nucleophile on the electrophilic carbon of the carbonyl group.

**General mechanism of acid-catalyzed addition reaction:**

- The acid catalyzed nucleophilic addition reaction will take place with a weak nucleophilic reagent.
- The addition is initiated by the proton (H⁺) liberated by the acid.
- The proton combines with the carbonyl oxygen atom and increases the electrophilic character of the carbonyl carbon.
- As a result, the attack of the weaker nucleophile on the electrophilic carbon becomes easier.



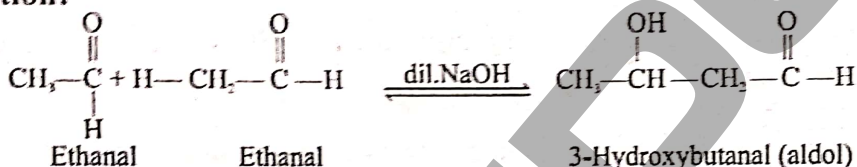
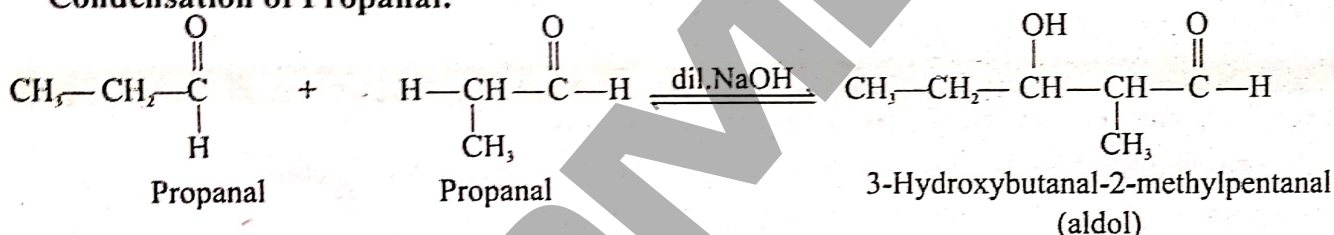
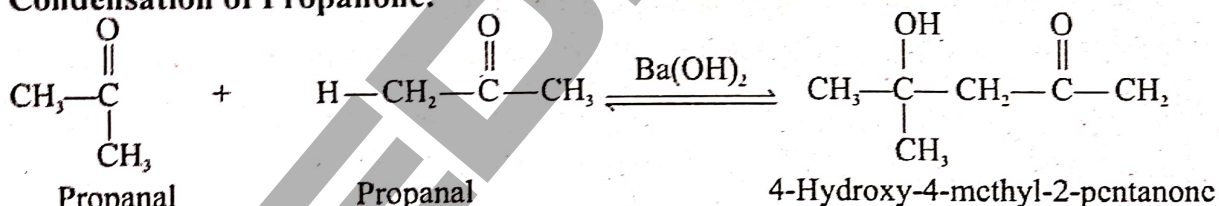
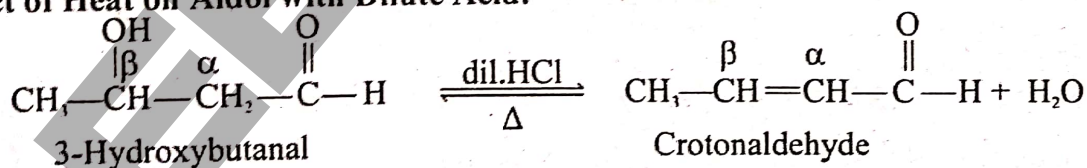
CONDENSATION REACTIONS

The reactions in which two molecules of the same or different compounds combine to form a new compound with or without the elimination of a small molecule like H_2O or NH_3 , are called condensation reactions.

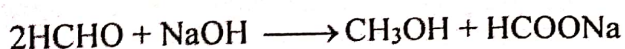
Aldol Condensation:

Aldehydes and ketones possessing α -hydrogen atoms react with a cold dilute solution of an alkali to form addition products known as aldols.

- The name aldol is given to the product because it contains both aldehyde and alcohol functional groups.
- Note that the name aldol condensation is reserved for the reaction that starts with two identical carbonyl compounds.
- Two molecules of the same carbonyl compound condense to form an aldol.

General reaction:**Condensation of Propanal:****Condensation of Propanone:****Effect of Heat on Aldol with Dilute Acid:****Cannizzaro's Reaction: (A disproportionation reaction)**

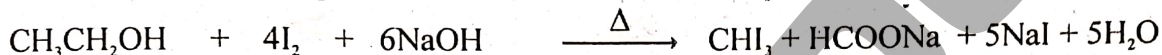
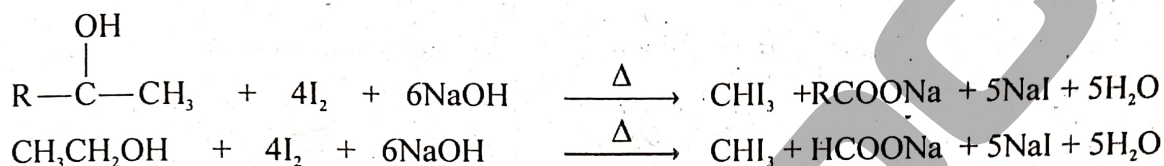
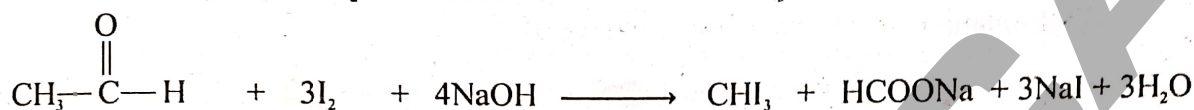
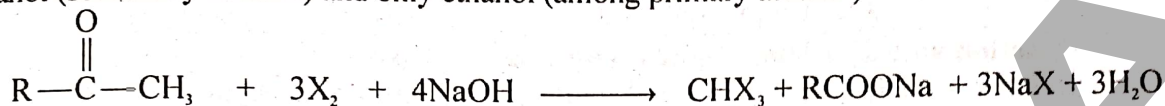
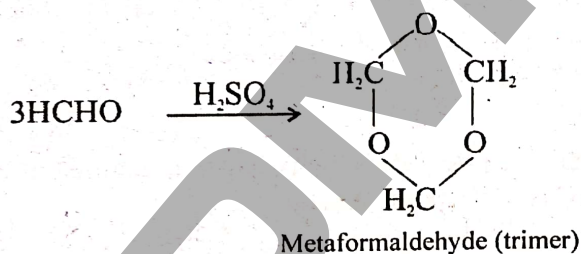
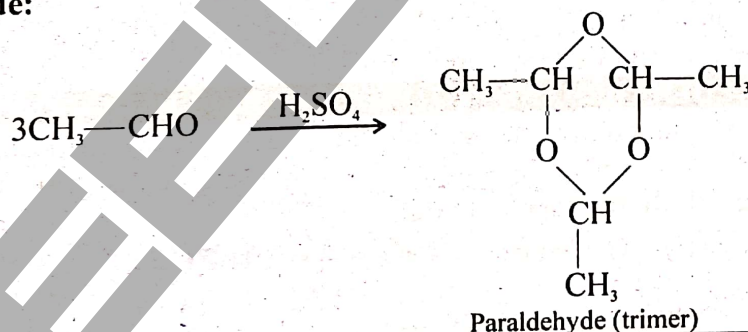
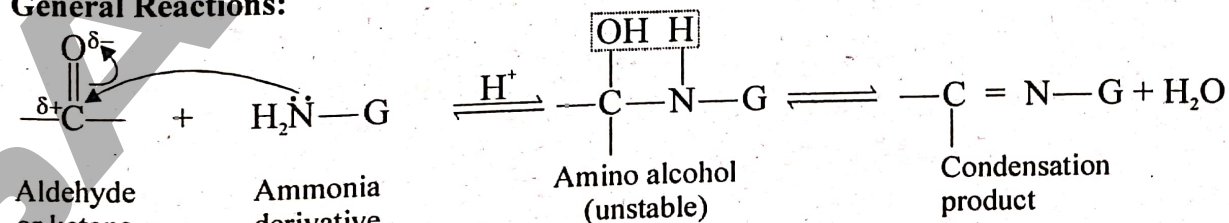
- Aldehydes that have no α -hydrogen atoms undergo cannizzaro's reaction.
- It is a disproportionation (self oxidation-reduction) reaction.
- Two molecules of the aldehyde are involved, one molecule being converted into the corresponding alcohol (the reduced product) and the other into the acid in the salt form (the oxidized product).
- The reaction is carried out with 50% aqueous solution of sodium hydroxide at room temperature.



Haloform Reaction:

Compounds that give haloform reactions are:

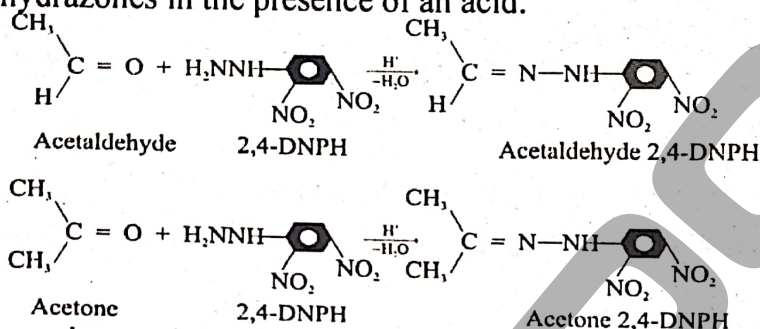
- Only acetaldehyde (among aldehydes)
- Methyl ketones (among ketones)
- 2-alkanol (secondary alcohol) and only ethanol (among primary alcohol)

**ACID-CATALYSED NUCLEOPHILIC ADDITION REACTIONS****Polymerization:
Formaldehyde****Acetaldehyde:****REACTIONS OF AMMONIA DERIVATIVES****General Reactions:**Aldehyde
or ketone
WhereAmmonia
derivative

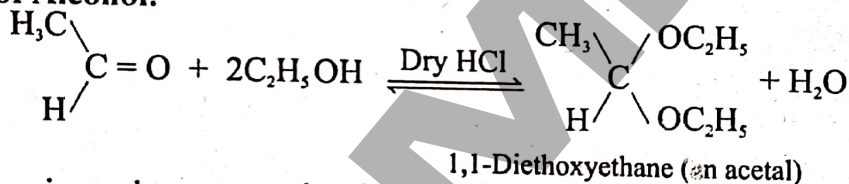
Hydroxylamine	NH ₂ OH
Hydrazine	NH ₂ NH ₂
Phenyl hydrazine	C ₆ H ₅ NHNH ₂
Semicarbazide	NH ₂ NHCONH ₂
2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazine	NH ₂ NHC ₆ H ₃ (NO ₂) ₂

Reaction with 2, 4-Dinitrophenyl hydrazine [2, 4-DNPH]

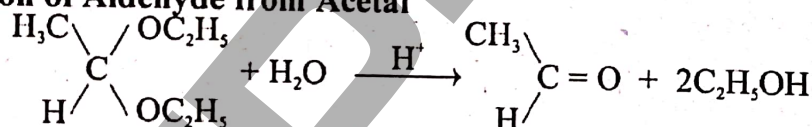
Aldehydes and ketones react with 2, 4-dinitrophenylhydrazine to form 2, 4-dinitrophenylhydrazones in the presence of an acid.



This reaction can be used for the identification of aldehydes and ketones because 2, 4-dinitrophenylhydrazones are usually yellow orange crystalline solids.

Addition of Alcohol:

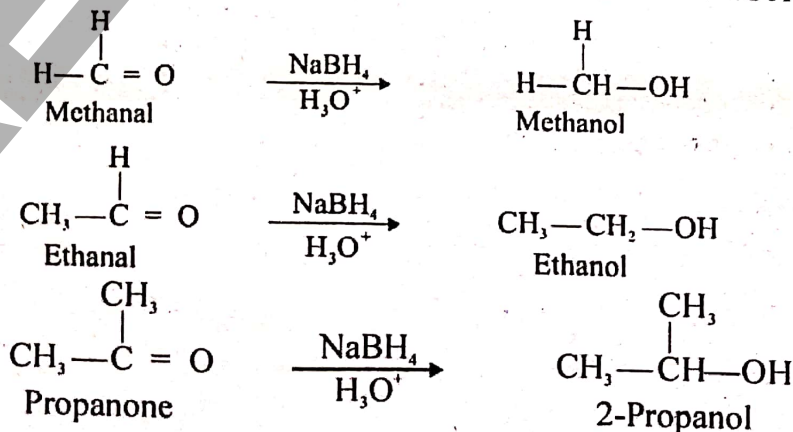
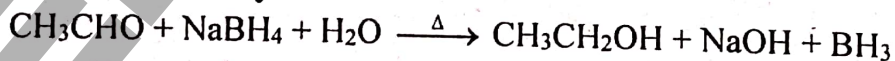
This reaction is used to protect the aldehyde group against alkaline oxidizing agent.

Regeneration of Aldehyde from Acetal

Ketones do not react under these conditions.

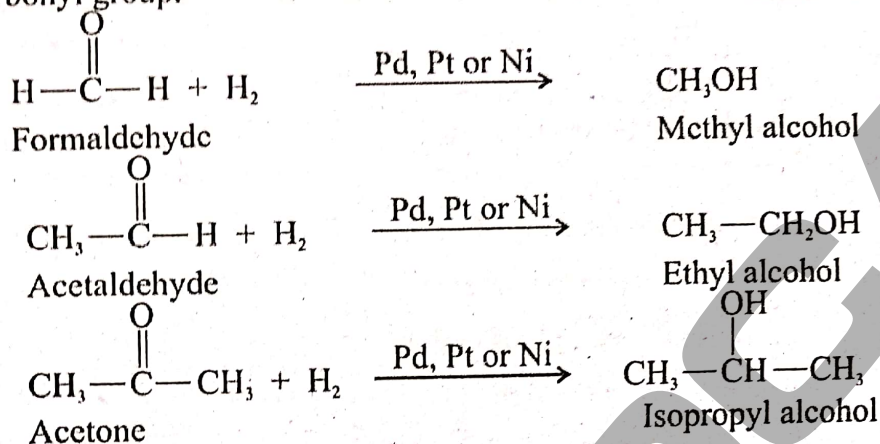
CHEMISTRY OF ALDEHYDES AND KETONES BY THEIR REDUCTION TO ALCOHOLS

Both Aldehydes and ketones can be reduced. Aldehydes are reduced to primary alcohols whereas ketones to secondary alcohols. The carbonyl group is converted into an alcohol.

Reduction with Sodium Borohydride:

Catalytic Reduction:

Aldehydes and ketones on reduction with hydrogen in the presence of a metal catalyst like Pd, Pt or Ni form primary and secondary alcohols respectively. Hydrogen is added across the carbonyl group.

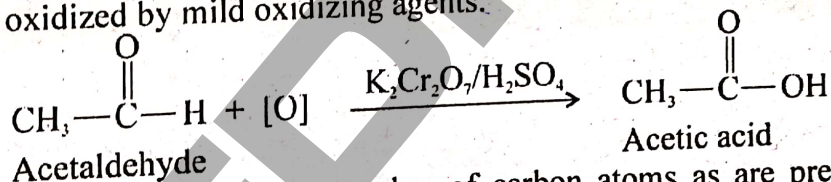


OXIDATION REACTIONS OF ALDEHYDES AND KETONES

Oxidation of Aldehydes:

Aldehydes are easily oxidised by mild oxidizing agents like Tollen's reagent, Fehling's solution and Benedict's solution.

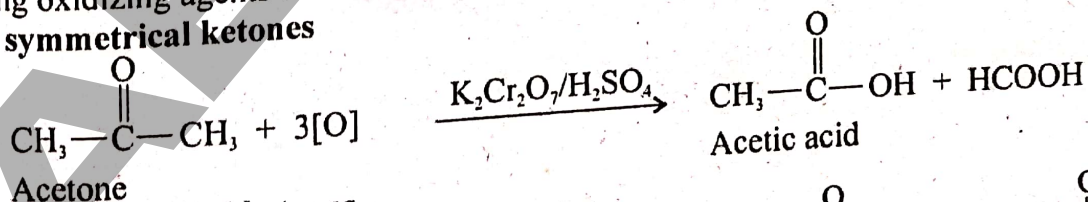
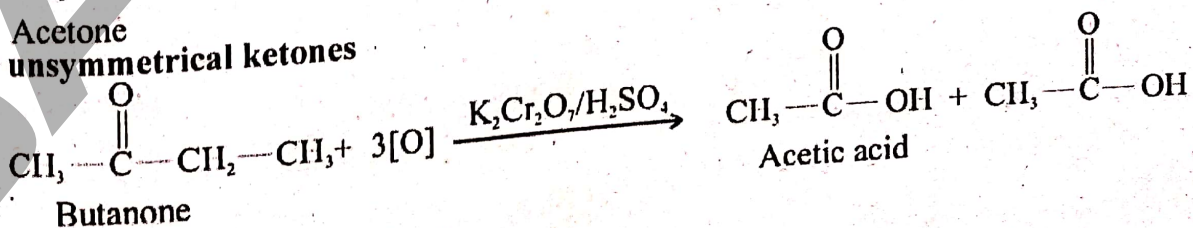
- They are oxidised to carboxylic acids by strong oxidizing agents such as $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7 / \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ or $\text{KMnO}_4 / \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ and dilute nitric acid.
- The hydrogen atom attached to the carbonyl group in aldehydes is oxidised to OH group. This is comparatively easier to oxidize.
- Hence, can be oxidized by mild oxidizing agents.



The carboxylic acid has the same number of carbon atoms as are present in the parent aldehyde.

Oxidation of Ketones:

Ketones do not undergo oxidation easily because they require breaking of strong carbon-carbon bond. They give no reaction with mild oxidizing agents. They are only oxidized by strong oxidizing agents such as $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7 / \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$, $\text{KMnO}_4/\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$, and conc. HNO_3 .

For symmetrical ketones**For unsymmetrical ketones**

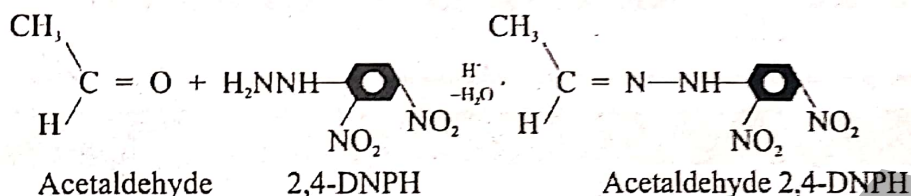
Identification of carbonyl compounds

Type of reactions / Reagents	Aldehydes	Ketones
Reduction	Primary alcohols	Secondary alcohols
Oxidation	Carboxylic acid containing same number of carbon atoms	Carboxylic acid containing smaller number of carbon atoms
Reaction with Tollent's reagent	Silver(Ag) mirror	Don't give silver mirror
Reaction with Fehling's solution	Brick red ppt. of Cu_2O	Don't reduce the Fehling's solution
Reaction with Benedict's solution	Brick red precipitate of Cu_2O	They don't reduce the Benedict's solution
Polymerization	Polymerize readily	Don't polymerize
Reaction with alcohol	Acetal formation	Don't react
Reaction with sodium nitroprusside	Don't react	Wine red or orange red coloration

COMPARISON

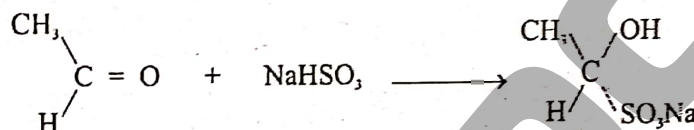
Reagent	Aldehyde	Ketone	Type of reaction	Products
HCN	✓	✓	Nucleophilic addition	Cyanohydrin
NaHSO_3	✓	✓	Nucleophilic addition	Bisulphite adducts
Grignard reagent	✓	✓	Nucleophilic addition	1° & 2° alcohols
$\text{NH}_2\text{-NH}_2$	✓	✓	Condensation	Hydrazones
$\text{NH}_2\text{-OH}$	✓	✓	Condensation	Oximes
$\text{NH}_2\text{-NH-C}_6\text{H}_5$	✓	✓	Condensation	Phenyl hydrazone
2,4-DNPH	✓	✓	Condensation	2,4-DNP hydrazone
Fehling solution test	✓	×	Redox	Cu_2O (Cuprous oxide)
Tollen's reagent	✓	×	Redox	Ag (Silver)
Benedict's solution test	✓	×	Redox	Cu_2O (Cuprous oxide)
Sodium nitroprusside test	×	✓	Redox	Wine red or orange red coloration

2,4 DNPH test:



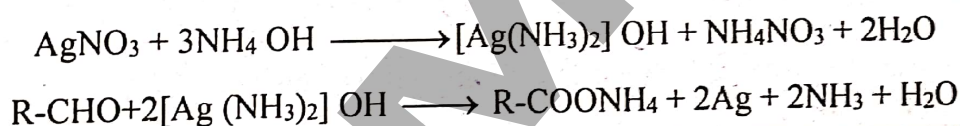
Aldehydes and ketones form a yellow or red precipitate with 2,4 dinitrophenylhydrazine solution.

Sodium Bisulphite Test:



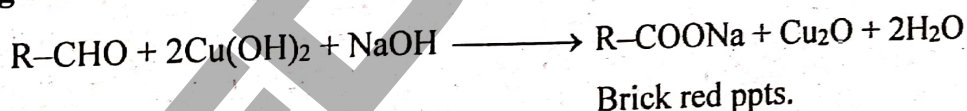
Aldehyde and small methyl ketones form a crystalline white precipitate with sodium bisulphite solution.

Tollen's Test [Silver Mirror Test]:

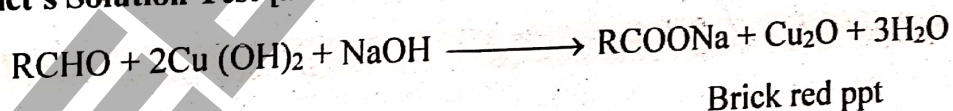


Silver mirror

Fehling's Solution Test [an alkaline solution containing a cupric tartrate complex ion]:



Benedict's Solution Test [an alkaline solution containing a cupric citrate complex ion]:



Sodium Nitroprusside Test:

Ketones produce a wine red or orange red colour on adding alkaline sodium nitroprusside solution dropwise.

TOPIC-18 CARBOXYLIC ACIDS

COURSE CONTENTS

- Classification
- Physical properties
- Preparations of carboxylic acids
- Reactivity
- Chemistry of carboxylic acids by conversion to carboxylic acids derivatives acyl halides, acids anhydrides, esters, amides and reactions involving interconversion of these.
- Acidic strength

INTRODUCTION

Carboxylic acids

Organic compounds containing -COOH as a functional group are called carboxylic acids (carb from carbonyl and oxyl from hydroxyl).

- Their general formula is R-COOH or $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n}\text{O}_2$
- The boiling points of carboxylic acids are relatively high due to intermolecular hydrogen bonding
- The most common carboxylic acid is acetic acid
- Acetic acid has strong vinegar like odour and sour taste

Nomenclature

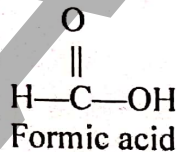
Structural Formula	Common Name	IUPAC Name
H-COOH	Formic acid	Methanoic acid
CH_3COOH	Acetic acid	Ethanoic acid
$\text{CH}_3\text{-CH}_2\text{-COOH}$	Propionic acid	Propanoic acid
$\text{CH}_3\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-COOH}$	Butyric acid	Butanoic acid
$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3\text{-CHCOOH} \\ \\ \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$	Iso-butyric acid	2-Methylpropanoic acid

CLASSIFICATION OF CARBOXYLIC ACIDS

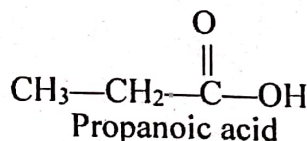
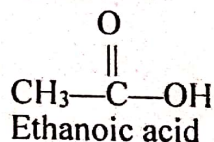
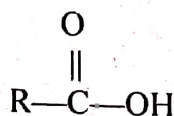
- Depending upon the group (R or Ar) attached to the Carboxylic group, acids are classified as:
- **Aliphatic carboxylic acids:** Carboxylic acids in which carboxylic group (-COOH) is attached to a hydrogen or an alkyl group are called aliphatic carboxylic acids.

Example:

(i)



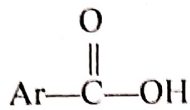
or



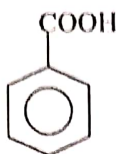
- **Aromatic carboxylic acids:** Carboxylic acids in which carboxyl group (COOH) is attached with an aryl group is called an aromatic carboxylic acid.

Example:

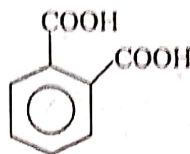
(ii)



Aromatic carboxylic acid



Benzoic acid

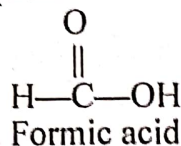


Phthalic acid

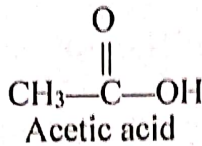
Depending upon the number of carboxyl groups in an acid, they are classified as:

- **Monocarboxylic acids:** Carboxylic acids containing only one carboxylic group are called monocarboxylic acids.

Examples:



Formic acid



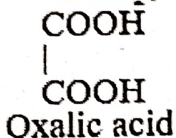
Acetic acid



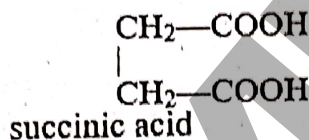
Benzoic acid

- **Dicarboxylic acids:** Carboxylic acids containing two carboxylic groups are called dicarboxylic acids.

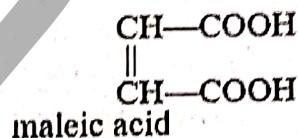
Examples:



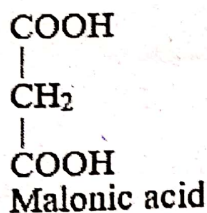
Oxalic acid



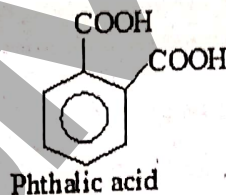
succinic acid



maleic acid

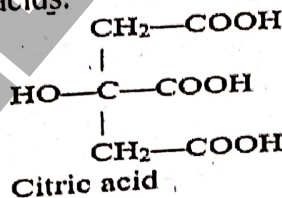


Malonic acid



Phthalic acid

- **Polycarboxylic acids:** Carboxylic acids containing more than two carboxylic groups are called polycarboxylic acids.



Citric acid

Example:

Aliphatic mono carboxylic acid – fatty acids

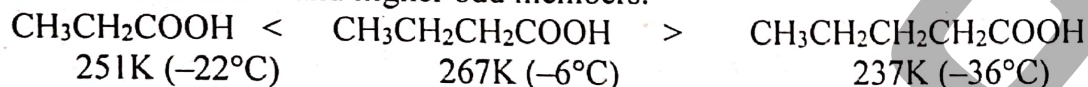
Formic acid	$\text{H}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{OH}$	Methanoic acid
Acetic acid	$\text{CH}_3-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{OH}$	Ethanoic acid
Iso butyric acid	$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3-\text{CH}-\text{COOH} \\ \\ \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$	2-Methylpropanoic acid

PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF CARBOXYLIC ACIDS

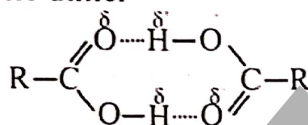
- C₁ to C₄ have pungent smell and C₄ to C₆ have unpleasant smell.
- C₁ to C₄ are very soluble in water due to hydrogen bonding. The solubility in water decreases with the increase in molecular mass.
- The boiling points of carboxylic acids are relatively high due to intermolecular hydrogen bonding.



- The melting points of carboxylic acids increase irregularly with molecular mass. The melting points of carboxylic acids containing even number of carbon atom are higher than the next lower and higher odd members.



- The molecular mass determination in non-polar solvents like benzene shows that carboxylic acids exist as cyclic dimer



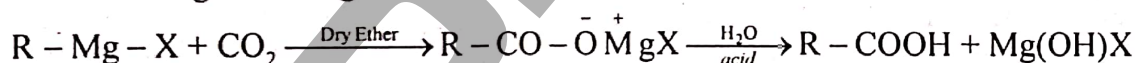
Dimer of a carboxylic acid

- The pure acetic acid freezes to an ice like solid at 17°C, therefore, it is called glacial acetic acid

PREPARATION OF CARBOXYLIC ACIDS

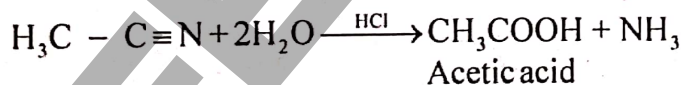
Following methods are used to prepare carboxylic acids.

Carbonation of Grignard reagent

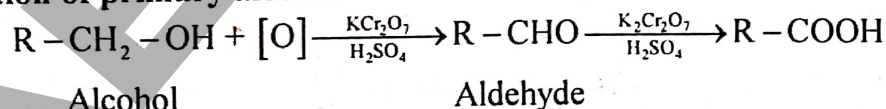


Hydrolysis of nitriles

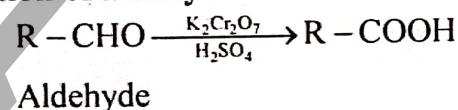
Organic compounds having cyanide group are called nitriles. Hydrolysis of an alkyl nitrile on boiling with mineral acid or alkalis yields carboxylic acids.



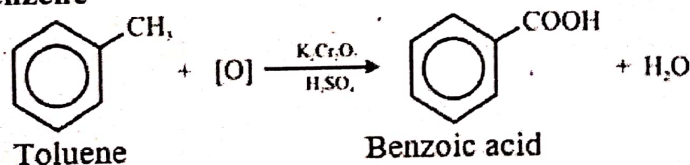
Oxidation of primary alcohols



Oxidation of aldehydes



Oxidation of alkyl benzene



REACTIVITY

- The carboxyl group shows the chemistry of both the carbonyl ($>\text{C}=\text{O}$) and the hydroxyl ($-\text{OH}$) groups.
- In most reactions, the carboxyl group is retained.
- However, the reactivity of these molecules is due to the presence of carbonyl group.

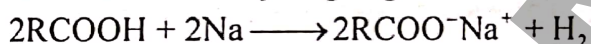
REACTIONS OF CARBOXYLIC ACID

Carboxylic acids undergo the following types of reactions.

- The reaction in which hydrogen atom of the carboxyl group is involved (salt formation).
- The reaction in which OH group is replaced by another group.
- The reactions involving carboxyl group as a whole.

THE REACTION IN WHICH HYDROGEN ATOM OF THE CARBOXYL GROUP IS INVOLVED (SALT FORMATION).

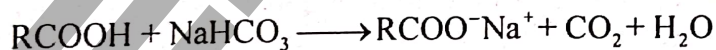
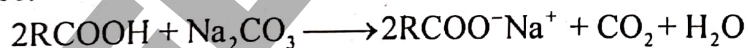
- It is an electrophilic substitution reaction.
- In this reaction hydrogen atom of the carboxyl group is involved.
- Carboxylic acid reacts with active metals (Na , K , Ca , Mg etc.) to form their salts with the evolution of hydrogen gas.



- Carboxylic acid reacts with bases (NaOH , KOH) to form salts

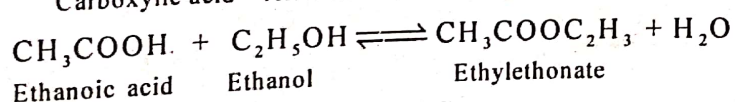
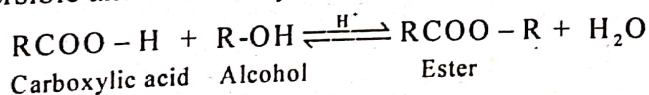


- Carboxylic acid reacts with carbonates and bicarbonates evolving carbon dioxide gas with effervescence.



THE REACTION IN WHICH OH GROUP IS REPLACED BY ANOTHER GROUP.
(I) ESTERIFICATION

- It is nucleophilic substitution reaction of carboxylic acid
- In this reaction OH group of carboxyl group is replaced by alkoxide group of alcohol.
- Esterification is reversible and acid catalyzed reaction.

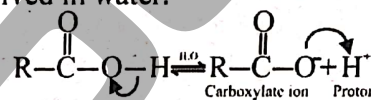


- Esters have fruity smell and are used as artificial flavors.

Ester	Flavour	Ester	Flavour
Amyl acetate	Banana	Isobutyl formate	Raspberry
Benzyl acetate	Jasmine	Ethyl butyrate	Pine apple
Amyl butyrate	Apricot	Octyl acetate	Orange

CRITICAL CONCEPT!

Carboxylic acids are weaker acids than mineral acids. They furnish H^+ when dissolved in water.

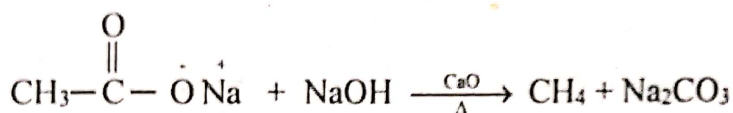
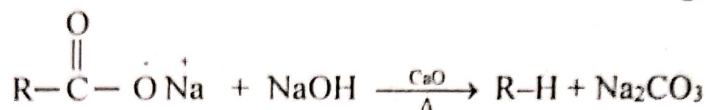


In the presence of water (H_2O), the proton breaks away as H_3O^+ ion.

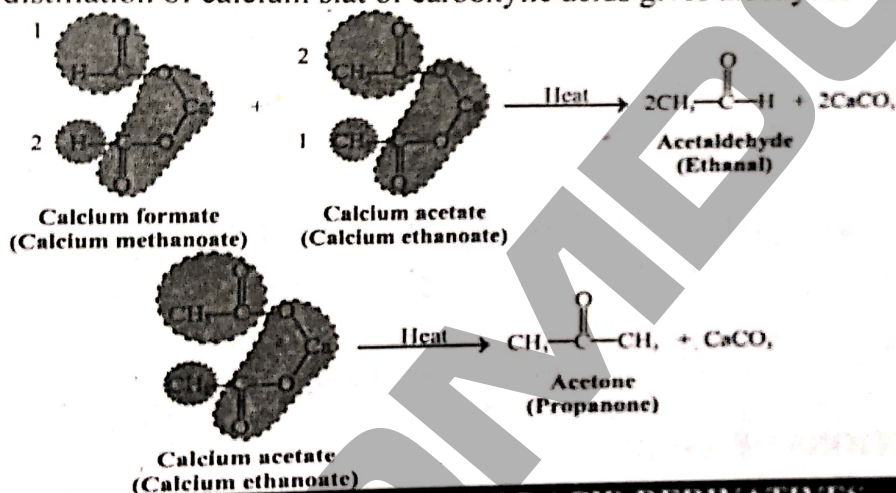
C. Acetic acid
D. Ethanol

Decarboxylation

- Loss of carbon dioxide is called decarboxylation.
- Simple carboxylic acids rarely undergo decarboxylation.
- (i) When sodium salt of carboxylic acid is strongly heated with soda lime (NaOH + CaO), and alkane is formed,
- The alkane formed contains one carbon less than original carboxylic acid



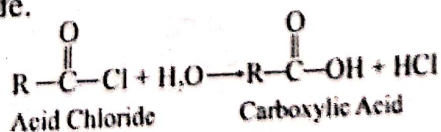
- (ii) Dry distillation of calcium salt of carboxylic acids gives aldehydes or ketone.

**REACTIONS OF CARBOXYLIC ACID DERIVATIVES****A. REACTIONS OF ACYL HALIDES (ACID HALIDE)**

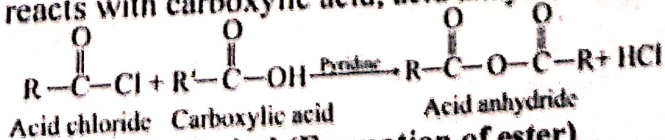
Acid halides are derivatives of carboxylic acid in which (–OH) hydroxyl group has been replaced by a halogen atom.

Reactions:**Reaction of Acid halide with water (Hydrolysis of Acid halide)**

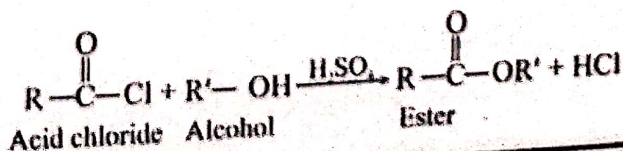
Acid chlorides react with water, often violently, to give the corresponding carboxylic acids and hydrogen chloride.

**Reaction of Acid halide with carboxylic acid.**

When Acid halide reacts with carboxylic acid, acid anhydride is formed.

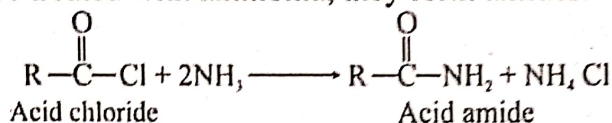
**Reaction of Acid halide with alcohol (Formation of ester)**

When acid halide reacts with alcohol in presence of conc. H_2SO_4 as a catalyst, ester is formed.

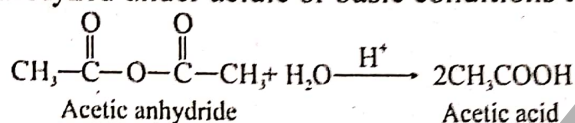


Reaction of acid halide with ammonia. (Formation of amide)

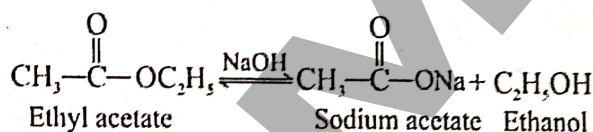
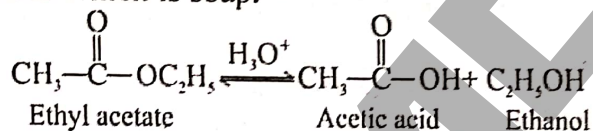
When acid halides are treated with ammonia, they form amides.

**B. REACTIONS OF ACID ANHYDRIDES****Hydrolysis (Reaction with water)**

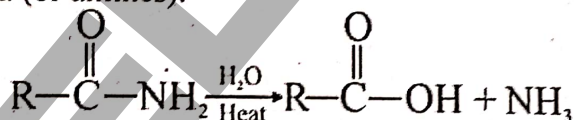
Acid anhydrides are hydrolyzed under acidic or basic conditions to form the parent acid.

**C. REACTIONS OF ESTERS****Hydrolysis of Esters**

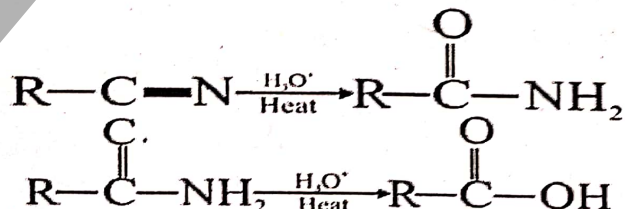
Esters can be hydrolyzed to acid and alcohol under acidic or basic conditions. Basic hydrolysis of esters is known as saponification because it leads to the formation of alkali salt of carboxylic acids which is soap.

**D. REACTIONS OF AMIDES****Hydrolysis of amides**

Amides are hydrolyzed when heated with a strong acid or a base and yield carboxylic acids and ammonia (or amines).

**E. REACTION OF NITRILES****Hydrolysis of Nitriles**

Nitriles, $\text{R}-\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$, can be hydrolyzed to carboxylic acids, RCO_2H via the amide, RCONH_2 intermediate in the presence of strong acid (e.g. H_2SO_4) or strong base (e.g. NaOH) / heat.



Order of reactivity of carboxylic acid derivative

Acid halide > Acid anhydride > Ester > Acid amide

ACIDIC STRENGTH

Carboxylic acids are the most acidic simple organic compounds. ($pK_a \approx 5$) but as compared with acids like HCl or H_2SO_4 , they are weak acids.

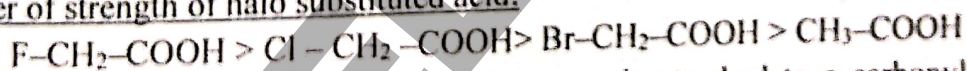
Carboxylic acid	Formula	pKa
Ethanoic acid	CH_3COOH	4.7
Propanoic acid	CH_3CH_2COOH	4.9
Fluoroethanoic acid	CH_2FCOOH	2.6
Chloroethanoic acid	$CH_2ClCOOH$	2.9
Dichloroethanoic acid	$CHCl_2COOH$	1.3
Trichloroethanoic acid	CCl_3COOH	0.9
Nitroethanoic acid	O_2NCH_2COOH	1.7

- Electron withdrawing group (Cl, F, NO_2) bonded to the carbon atom next to the carboxylic group ($COOH$) make the acid stronger. Due to electron withdrawing group electron will move away from oxygen. Hence decreases charge density on oxygen atom of carboxylate ion which stabilizes the $-COO^-$ group and makes it less likely to bond with an H^+ ion.

For example, chloroacetic acid is 100 times stronger acid than acetic acid.

- Electron donating group (alkyl) strengthens the O-H bond in the acid's $-COOH$ group. It donates negative charge towards the $-COO^-$ group of the carboxylate ion, making it more likely to accept an H^+ ion, hence acidic strength decreases.
- For example, formic acid is more acidic than acetic acid.
- Strength of an acid is measured by pK_a values. Greater the value of pK_a weaker will be the acid and vice versa.

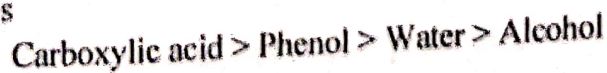
NOTE: Order of strength of halo substituted acid:



- In each of the carboxylic acids, the $-OH$ group is attached to a carbonyl $C=O$ group, which is in turn bonded to other atoms.
- The comparison we observe here is between carboxylic acid molecules, denoted as $RCOOH$, and other organic molecules containing the $-OH$ group, such as alcohols denoted as ROH (R is simply an atom or group of atoms attached to the functional group).
- The former are obviously acids whereas the latter group contains molecules which are generally extremely weak acids.

Comparison of acidic strengths:

- One interesting comparison is for the acid and alcohol when R is the benzene ring (C_6H_5-). benzoic acid (C_6H_5COOH), has $pK_a = 4.2$, whereas phenol (C_6H_5OH) has $pK_a = 9.9$.
- Thus, the presence of the doubly bonded oxygen atom on the carbon atom adjacent to the $-OH$ clearly increases the acidity of the molecule, and thus increases ionization of the $-OH$ bond.
- Acidic strength order is



TOPIC-19 MACROMOLECULES

COURSE CONTENTS

- Classification and structure-function relationship of proteins
- Role of various proteins in maintaining body functions and their nutritional importance.
- Role of enzymes as biocatalysts.

INTRODUCTION

Macromolecule

A giant molecule which is often a polymer is called macromolecule.

Polymer

A large molecule built up by the repetition of small and simple chemical units is called polymer.

Monomer

Small unit or simple molecule from which a macromolecule is formed is called monomers.

STRUCTURE OF PROTEINS

- The name protein is derived from the Greek word 'PROTEIOS' meaning of prime importance.
- Proteins are polymer of amino acids.
- Proteins upon complete hydrolysis yield amino acids.

Types of proteins

Particular	Simple protein	Conjugated protein	Derived protein
Definition	Gives only amino acid or its derivatives	Gives amino acid and prosthetic group	Contains amino acids and substances derived from simple conjugated protein
Examples	Globulins, albumins, Collagens	Lipoproteins, Phosphoproteins	Peptones, Oligopeptides, Enzyme, Proteoses, Polypeptides

STRUCTURE OF PROTEINS

The structure of a protein depends upon the spatial arrangement of polypeptide chains present in proteins. Since three spatial arrangements are possible proteins have the following four structures.

- Primary structure
- Secondary structure
- Tertiary structure
- Quaternary structure

(i) The Primary structure of proteins

The sequence of amino acids in peptide chain is called primary structure. Amino acids are linked with one another through peptide bond. The arrangement of these acids is called primary structure.

(ii) The secondary structure of protein

Peptide chains may acquire spiral shape or may be present in a zig-zag manner. This coiling or zig-zagging of polypeptide is called secondary structure of protein. It is due to H-bond.

(iii) The tertiary structure of proteins

Twisting or folding of polypeptide chains represents tertiary structure of proteins.

(iv) Quaternary Proteins

Quaternary means four. This is the fourth phase in the creation of a protein. Quaternary protein is the arrangement of multiple folded protein or coiling protein molecules in a multi-subunit complex. A variety of bonding interactions including hydrogen bonding, salt bridges, and disulfide bonds hold the various chains into a particular geometry.

Properties of proteins

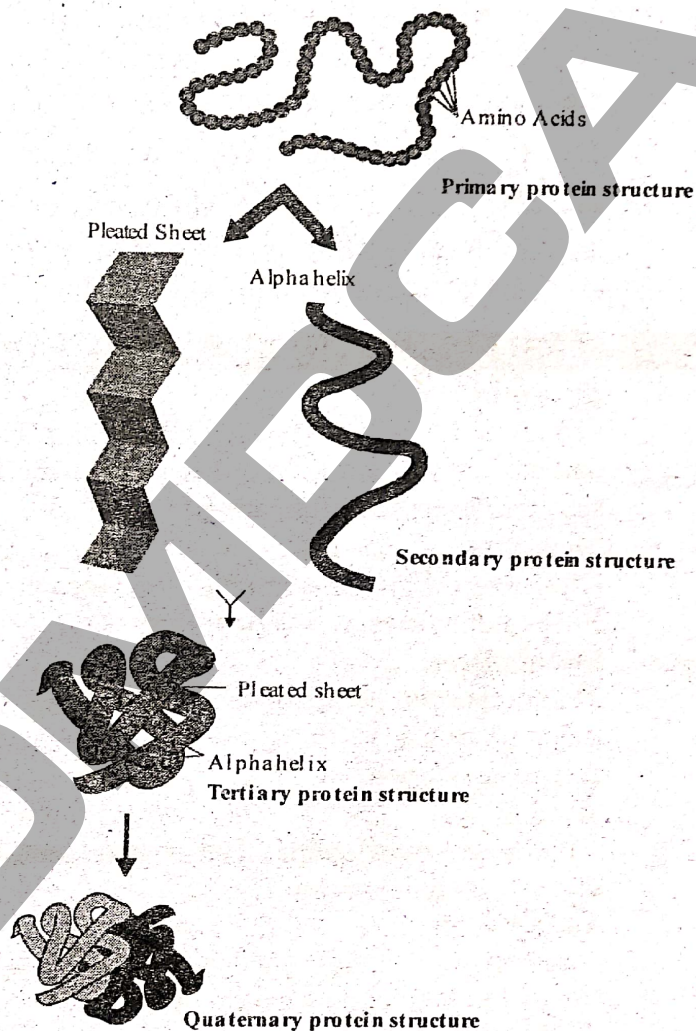
Proteins are one of the four major groups of macromolecules that are found in all living organisms. These giant molecules carry out many of the vital functions needed by cells.

- Proteins are involved in such processes as food digestion, cell structure, catalysis, movement, energy manipulation and much more.
- They are complex huge associations of molecular subunits that appear impossibly difficult to understand.
- They are all built using the same construction principle. As with all macromolecules, proteins are polymers, composed of smaller subunits- the amino acids joined together in long chains.
- There are about 20-22 common amino found in most proteins. All but one of these small molecules has the same common structure, but varies in the nature of one chemical group termed the "R-group". Amino acids are joined together in long chains called "polypeptides".

Importance of proteins

Following are the features of the protein which are considered to be very important.

- Proteins play an important role in the formation of protoplasm. Protoplasm is the essence of all form of life.
- Nucleoproteins are complex proteins and act as the carrier of heredity from one generation to the other.
- Enzymes are the biological catalyst and they are also proteins. Without enzymes life is not possible.
- Hemoglobin is a protein, it acts as carrier of oxygen.



- Some of the proteins act as hormones. They carry out the regulatory function of this body.
- Proteins have great importance in industry. The tanning of hides is an industrial process. This process is the precipitation of protein by tannic acid.
- Gelatin is obtained by heating bones, skins and tendons in water. It is used in bakery goods.
- Casein is another protein used in the manufacture of buttons and buckles.
- Proteins obtained from the soybean are used for the manufacture of plastics.

Denaturation of proteins

Denaturation of proteins can be done by:

- Heat: albumin of egg white changes into solid
- Change in pH: each enzyme has its own particular pH for action
- Oxidizing or reducing conditions

ENZYMES AS A BIOCATALYST

Enzymes

Enzymes are biocatalysts which alter the speed of metabolic activities in the living bodies. Enzymes are complex protein molecules which are quite specific in action and sensitive to temperature and pH.

Meanings of Enzymes

Greek word En means in and Zyme means yeast.

Role of enzymes as a biocatalyst

Metabolism:

Metabolism is the set of biochemical reactions that occur in living organisms in order to maintain to life.

It is of two types

Anabolism

Anabolism includes the biochemical reactions in which larger molecules are synthesized and it is usually endothermic.

Catabolism

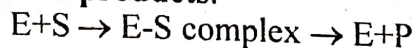
Catabolism includes the biochemical reactions in which larger molecules are broken down and it is usually exothermic.

Biocatalyst

Enzymes are crucial to metabolism because they act as biocatalysts up speed and regulate metabolic pathways. Enzymes are proteins that catalyze (i.e speed up) biochemical reactions and are not changed during the reaction.

Substrates and Products

The molecules at which enzymes act are called **substrates**, and enzyme converts them into different molecules, called **products**.

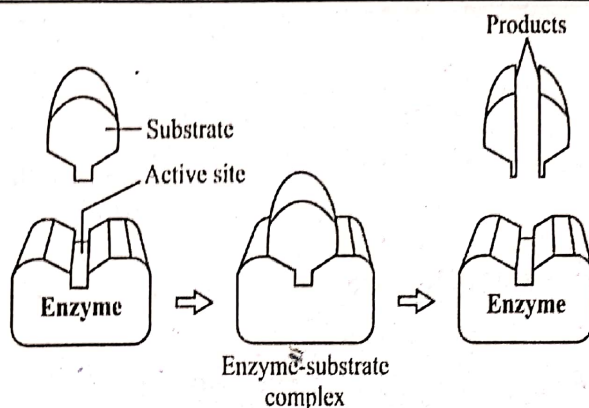


Lock and key model

In 1894, German chemist, Emil Fischer proposed lock and key model.

According to this model, both enzyme and substrate possess specific shapes that fit exactly into one another.

This model explains enzyme specifically.

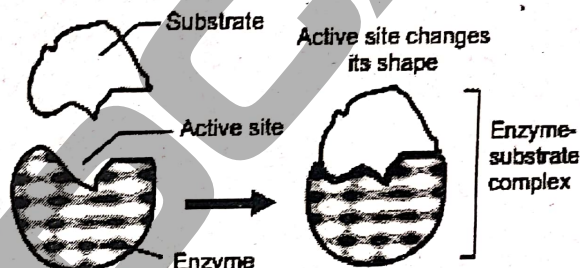


Induced Fit Model

In 1958 an American biologist Daniel Koshland suggested a modifications to lock and key model and proposed induced-fit model.

According to this model active site is not a rigid structure rather is moulded into the required shape to perform its function.

“Induced fit model” is more acceptable than “lock and key model” of enzyme action.



Factors affecting enzyme activity

Enzymes are very sensitive to the environment in which they work. Any factor that can change the chemistry or shape of enzyme molecule, can affect its activity.

Temperature

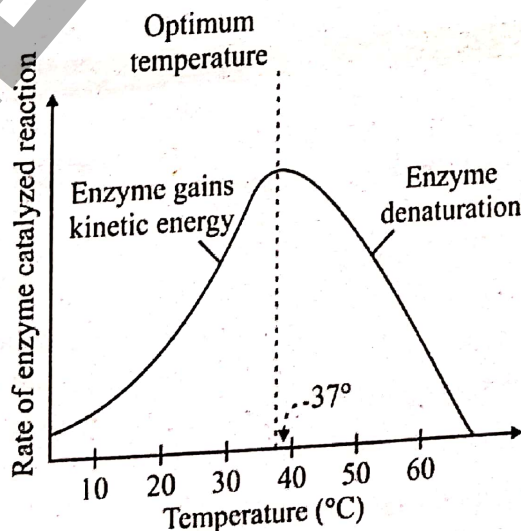
Increase in temperature speeds up the rate of enzyme catalyzed reactions, but only to a point. Every enzyme works at its maximum rate at a specific temperature called as the optimum temperature for that enzyme.

Examples:

- For most animal enzymes, optimum temperature is around body temperature (37 °C).
- Some plants enzymes such as urease has optimum temperature even up to 60 °C.

Graphical explanation:

If we plot a graph between temperature and rate or velocity of enzymatic reaction we get the curve as shown.

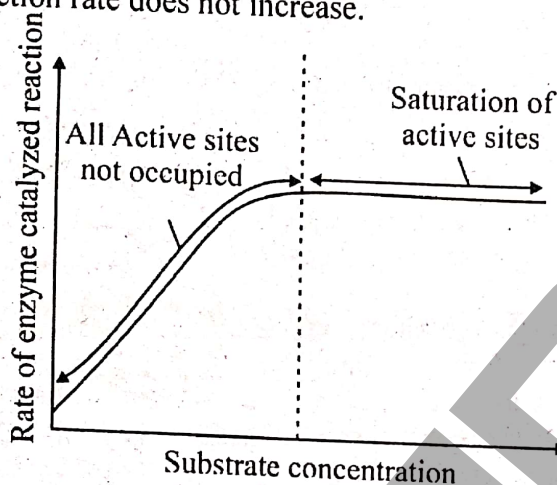


Substrate concentration

Increase in substrate concentration, increases the rate of reaction.

If enzyme concentration is kept constant and amount of substrate is increased then rate is increased up to a limit because of the active sites of all enzymes are occupied (at high substrate concentration).

More substrate molecules do not find free active site. This state is called **saturation of active site** and reaction rate does not increase.



pH

Optimum pH:

All enzymes work at their maximum rate at narrow range of pH, called as the optimum pH. A slight change in this pH causes retardation in enzyme activity or blocks it completely. Every enzyme has its specific optimum pH value. For example, pepsin (working in stomach) is active in acidic medium (pH=2) while trypsin (working in small intestine) shows its activity in alkaline medium (pH = 8-9).

Inhibition of Enzyme

A molecule that binds with an enzyme and decreases its activity is known as enzyme inhibitor. Inhibition can be reversible or irreversible according to the type of interaction formed between the inhibitor and the enzyme.

Types of Inhibitors

Irreversible inhibitors	Reversible inhibitors
When the inhibitors react and form strong covalent bonds with the active sites of the enzyme, it is called irreversible inhibition. It is stable and irreversible.	The inhibition in which the activity of an enzyme is restored is called reversible inhibition. There are two types of reversible inhibition.

Competitive inhibition

A competitive inhibitor resembles the substrate. It can bind to the enzyme in the same way that the substrate does. When present in the active site the inhibitor prevents the normal substrate from binding. The effect of inhibitor is overcome by decreasing the concentration of normal substrate.

Non – competitive inhibition

A non-competitive inhibitor also reduces enzyme activity. The inhibitor usually binds at a separate binding site. It does not bind at the active site. When inhibitor binds at the second site (non-active site), it changes the shape of enzyme so that the shape of active site is changed and substrate can no longer bond to the active site.

Industrial application of enzyme

Enzymes are extensively used in different industries for fast chemical reactions. For example;

Industrial applications	Explanation
Food industry	Enzymes that break starch into simple sugars are used in the production of white bread, buns etc.
Brewing Industry	Enzymes break starch and proteins. The products are used by yeast for fermentation (to produce alcohol).
Paper Industry	Enzymes break starch to lower its viscosity that aids in making paper.
Biological detergent	Protease enzymes are used for the removal of protein stains from clothes. Amylase enzymes are used in dish washing to remove resistant starch residues.
Dairy Industry	Lipase enzymes are implemented during the production of cheese.
Starch Industry	Amylase, amyloglucosidase and Glucoamylase enzymes are used to convert starch into glucose and various syrups.
Biofuel industry	Cellulase enzymes are used to break down cellulose into sugars that can be fermented.
Contact Lense Cleaners	Protease enzymes are used to remove proteins on contact lens to prevent infections.
Rubber industry	Catalase enzymes are used to generate oxygen from peroxide to convert latex into foam rubber.
Photographic industry	Protease (Ficin) enzymes are applied to dissolve gelatin off scrap film, allowing recovery of its silver content.
Molecular biology	Restriction enzyme, DNA Ligase and polymerase enzymes are used to manipulate DNA in genetic engineering. More importantly in pharmacology, agriculture and medicine. It is also important in forensic science.

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